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ABSTRACT

This booklet comprises a compendium of reviews of the following American-history texts on the junior-high school, senior-high school, or junior-senior-high school levels: (1) "Perspectives in United States History," Hovenier, et al.; (2) "Quest for Liberty," Chapin, et al.; (3) "Rise of the American Nation," Todd, et al.; (4) "The People Make a Nation," Sandler, et al.; (5) "A People and a Nation," Hofstadter and Ver Steeg; (6) "The Americans: A History of the United States," Fenton; (7) "America: A Modern History of the United States," Freidel and Drewry; (8) "American History for Today," Branson; (9) "Liberty and Union: A History of the United States," Wilson and Spiero; (10) "The American Experience," Madgic, et al.; (11) "Adventures in American History," Glanzrock; (12) "The Impact of Our Past: A History of the United States," Weisberger; (13) "Exploring Our Nation's History," Schwartz and O'Connor; (14) "Building the United States," Reich, et al.; (15) "One Nation Indivisible," Heller and Potter; (16) "The Promise of America," Gordon and Bragdon; (17) "America, Its People and Values," Wood, et al.; (18) "The Shaping of America," Curry, et al.; and, (19) "A New History of the United States: an Inquiry Approach," Bartlett, et al. (JM)

OTHER PUBLICATIONS BY IRVING SLOAN

Our Violent Past: An American Chronology
Random House, 1969

Viewpoints in American History Series: Labor Abolition
Random-Singer School Division

Blacks in America: Fact Book & Chronology
Oceana, 1970

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Oceana, 1970

Youth and the Law
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James Buchanan—1969
Martin Van Buren—1969

The Negro in Modern American History Secondary Textbooks
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THE NEGRO IN MODERN AMERICAN HISTORY TEXTBOOKS

The Negro in Modern American History Textbooks
(4th edition)

An examination and analysis of the treatment of Black history in selected junior and senior high school level history textbooks, as of September 1972.

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Key: jhs—junior-high school
shs—senior-high school
jshs—junior-senior-high school

Introductory Commentary

More than a half century ago, in 1911, Edward A. Johnson, a leading black historian of the time, had

> . . . observed the sin of omission and commission on the part of white authors, most of whom seem to have written exclusively for white children, and studiously left out the many creditable deeds of the Negro. The general tone of most of the histories taught in our schools has been that of the inferiority of the Negro, whether actually said in so many words, or left to be implied from the highest laudation of the deeds of one race to the complete exclusion of the other.

Some 57 years later, in 1968, civil-rights leader Bayard Rustin still contended that

> Negro children in this society—and white children, also—are being taught biased, edited, and ultimately racist versions of American history and culture. As taught in our textbooks, this history reinforces in white children the notion that they are superior and the only creators of this country; and it reinforces in black children the notion that they are inferior and have made no contribution.

And, as recently as the following year, 1969, the distinguished white social-studies educator, Mark M. Krug of the University of Chicago, argued that

> . . . the study of American history in our schools has been and still is incomplete and often distorted as far as the role played by the Negroes in the history of our nation is concerned . . . More often than not, the American Negro has been given the silent treatment by history textbooks.

Finally, Dr. Carleton L. Lee, professor and director of black studies at Western Michigan University, concluded in a 1971 article in the *Negro History Bulletin* that

> . . . it is still possible for one to go from nursery school to the highest academic degree and believe that people of African descent have made no meaningful contribution to American life.

The time has come, however, to praise what the American-history textbooks have at this point of time achieved in their treatment of black Americans and to bury the grievances and complaints of the past, to stop describing *today's* texts as though the years of reform and revision have counted for nothing at all. Whatever weaknesses and gaps still linger among a very few of the texts of the 1970s, the attention given to the black American experience is many times greater than that given to any other minority group. And this is at a time when the call for more material and emphasis on minority groups is at a very high pitch.

Indeed, many of the texts are sold and promoted as texts which tell the story of America in terms of the *peoples* of the nation. We do note and criticize a few of the texts in this survey for failing to *integrate* much of the black American material into what we call a "natural flow" of the text. But even in these instances, the information is in the text. Beyond that, however, there are some texts which have achieved to near perfection a fully integrated American-history textbook.

It is always appropriate to call for further improvements, even among the "best" accounts. We continue to do so in this edition, but we acknowledge that, by and large, most of the textbooks published at the present time do a first-rate job.

Furthermore, we repeat our comment that the inherent nature and limitations of a history textbook make impossible totally adequate space for almost any individual topic in American history. Nevertheless, we find that a good number of the presently reviewed texts manage to come admirably close to that goal.

This leads us to point out that one of the most exciting and significant changes among the texts reviewed this year, as compared to those of just a few short years back, is their very design and format. Under strong pressure from the creative and imaginative individual multimedia programs which have become available during these same years, textbook editorial departments have so revamped the texts that they too have become multimedia "programs," replacing the dull and sterile printed affairs they once were. Many of the texts have adopted the teaching strategy of inquiry or discovery learning. End-of-the-chapter questions no longer ask the student to repeat what he read. They engage the student in the learning process and challenge him to offer conclusions based upon primary sources.

This transformation of the American-history textbook has made our evaluation for this edition a more difficult albeit a more challenging enterprise. Sheer quantity of information on black Americans was no longer a substantial criterion. The quality of the approach in presenting the information had become a crucial factor.

One criterion, however, is still vitally important. That is the criterion of historical scholarship. In this connection, we do conclude that the texts meet the highest standards, almost without exception. Such overlooked facts as participation of blacks in the exploration of America, their arrival as indentured servants (not as slaves), the end of romanticism concerning slave life, the militant black-abolitionist movement as well as the violence of slave revolts, the participation of black Americans in all the nation's wars to defend her freedom and independence, the "positive good" contributed by black officeholders during Reconstruction, the de-facto discrimination endured by black Americans in the North before and after the Civil War—all of these specifics (and, in some texts, much more) have been included in the texts in varying degrees. Much, if not most, and, in some instances all, that we critics, black and white, have been calling for through the years has come to pass.

Of all these critics, it was Marie Elizabeth Carpenter who produced the first really important study of "The Treatment of the Negro in American-History School Textbooks." She published this as her thesis in 1941 at Teachers College, Columbia University. Her subtitle, "A Comparison of Changing Textbook Content, 1826 to 1939, with Developing Scholarship in the History of the Negro in the United States," reveals the vast scope of her work. While that publication now has largely only an historical interest, it would seem to be useful to consider her recommendations in 1941 to see how far we have come in a single generation.

Before turning directly to her recommendations, however, let us note her conclusions about the "updated" texts she reviewed. One of her most hopeful and optimistic statements about one particular text reflects where things stood then.

Between the years 1925 and 1937, Beard and Beard have made changes in their presentation of the Negro. The word Negro is now capitalized, whereas it was spelled with a small "n" in 1925.[1] The 1937 index pointed to more page references on the Negro. While there was no change in the treatment of the Negroes as slaves, a small amount of additional material was

given on the Negro since the Civil War. This consisted of methods of disenfranchising Negroes in the South and the advancement of Negroes along various lines. The statement was added to the 1937 text that the Negro was now better able to discharge duties of citizenship than white men were when full and free manhood suffrage was granted. The 1937 text also stated that the agricultural problems faced by both white and Negro were similar and that they are both kept down by the same things. This last text added a picture of the statue in memory of Booker T. Washington.[2]

We move on to Carpenter's "recommendations" after she concluded that the texts left "much to be desired."

1. Take cognizance of the Negro not only as a passive character, but also as one active in his own behalf and in that of the nation.

The role of the slave revolts and the black-abolitionist movement receive considerable attention in most of the current texts. An example of the kind of treatment which is offered is this excerpt:

Many Negro slaves who escaped to freedom spent the rest of their lives trying to win freedom for others. These former slaves had experienced slavery. They knew what they were talking about. Their appearance at antislavery meetings was often more effective than Garrison's.

This passage is followed by several paragraphs on Frederick Douglass, who is:

. . . proof that black men had great intelligence and knew how to use that intelligence to help fight slavery.

All the texts now include references to the role that black Americans have played in the nation's wars to defend its freedom. Whole sections are devoted to describing this participation and contribution in the texts. One text contains an end-of-the-chapter historical essay, "Black Soldiers in the Civil War," dealing with such questions as,

Did Negro troops contribute to the Union victory over the Confederacy? Did the black community contribute to the cause of its own liberation? These are the questions we shall try to answer in this case study as we investigate the role of black fighting men in the Civil War.

As our text-by-text discussion will demonstrate, not all the texts carry through this topic at the highest level of space and substance. It is clear, however, that all of them are moving in this direction.

2. Recognize that the legal and actual status and history of the Negro did not always coincide, and realize that because of this the historical conclusions should be based upon various types of sources in order to obtain a true picture.

Perhaps no factor so distinguishes the latest texts from those of even the most recent past than the inclusion of varied primary sources in almost all of the new texts. In line with the "new social studies,"[3] one text points out to the student reader that,

[1]It should be noted here that a number of the texts included in the present survey refer to "Black Americans" in their indexes as well as in the textual copy.

[2]This photograph, coupled with the shot of George Washington Carver in his Tuskegee laboratory, remained the total sum of illustrated references to black Americans for much of the next generation of students studying American history.

[3]The "new social studies" has taken considerably longer to get into the classrooms than the "new math" or "new science!"

instead of being expected to accept the authors' version of what happened or of what people said, students will read first-hand accounts "by people who contributed to the making of America and second-hand accounts by many different historians and journalists." Even more importantly, and going beyond what Carpenter was calling for, students are given the opportunity to draw conclusions and make judgments based on the evidence found in their reading. The new texts offer a virtual explosion of paintings, photographs, folk songs, cartoons, diagrams, charts, and maps. Thus, the sources take on great variety as well as great numbers.

3. Touch upon the education, music, literature, art, scientific achievements, and other contributions of the Negro which were unique or among the foremost in the life of the nation in sections on the culture and everyday life during the different centuries in America. The general broadening of the history content in textbooks allows for the logical development of broadening the scope of the history relating to the Negro.

While all the texts, again in varying degrees, do identify these contributions of black Americans to the American cultural scene, very few of them do it by way of integrating the material "in sections on the culture and everyday life during the different centuries in America." Too frequently, the information is lumped into a single section in the text rather than appearing as an integral part of a discussion of the social history of the period in general. It is for this reason that so many of the texts, including those with a great deal of black-American history material in terms of total space, have as many as 200 consecutive pages of textual copy without a single black reference. The references are packed into "segregated" sections.

Our point is that one of the major revisions now needed is to properly place the material. Until now, the issue was to get the material in at all. But, as the reader will note when he reads the individual evaluations in this study, a number of the texts do achieve a thoroughly integrated presentation.

We must point out that, far from "the general broadening of the history content in textbooks" as Carpenter observed in 1941, many of the new texts are narrowing down the number of topics covered in order to accomplish in-depth study of the fewer selected topics. Where a text follows this approach, we expect to find that the black American experience in at least one or even two of its dimensions is among those selected topics. Some school districts choose to emphasize process over content in the social studies. This will have something to do with the kind of text to be adopted among the new editions. It is our judgment that several of the "inquiry-oriented" texts do a better job, even in the area of black-American history with its fewer topics, than some of the traditional "cover-to-cover" histories which attempt to include everything.

4. Indicate that differences did exist when stating what was typical of the Negro group.

The new texts can be characterized as avoiding stereotyped presentations concerning black Americans. At least one salient example of this is the great play so many of the texts give to the controversy between the philosophies of Booker T. Washington and W. E. B. DuBois. Malcolm X and Martin Luther King Jr. also are contrasted.

5. Point out the effects of social forces, segregation and discrimination, for example, which have affected the Negro alone among groups in America, and how these forces have been stimulated by his presence.

While it no longer may be appropriate to argue that "the Negro alone among groups in America" has suffered as a result of social forces in this country, it is certainly true that a great majority of the new texts make subjective or value judgments about the extent to which black Americans have endured, and, in no small degree, continue to endure discrimination. The recognition of values in the teaching of American history is a new trend. Several texts have the courage to offer value statements which can build up positive attitudes among the students concerning racial as well as other social issues. One text goes so far as to use the title, "America, Its People and Values." Thus, in addition to merely describing the institution of slavery in objective terms, one text goes on to make some compelling value judgments which can go a long way to giving a student a feeling, as well as a knowledge, about this institution.

> A slave was a slave until he died. His children were born slaves. A slave could not look forward to becoming a free man, as the indentured servant could. Slavery was evil because it denied that men who were slaves also were human beings. Slavery often meant that men were treated no better than beasts of burden.
>
> Slavery also had many other tragic results. Since only Negroes were made slaves, the colonists began to believe that Negroes were not as good as white people. In this way, racial prejudice developed as slavery grew.

This kind of discussion about slavery and the historical roots of racial prejudice is nothing less than a turning point in the textbook treatment of black American history.

It was Samuel Eliot Morison who has said that "objective history which avoids judgment is dull history." The most dramatic and most significant example of the inclusion of value judgments in the texts is the change which has taken place in their treatment of the Reconstruction period. As recently as 1969, Mark Krug contended that this topic,

> . . . as presented in many classrooms is a black-and-white picture which lacks judiciousness, balance, and depth.

However much this was true in the texts of the past, especially when Krug originally made this comment in an earlier article in 1961, virtually all of the current texts reflect the revisionist scholarship which argues that there were many positive contributions made by the Reconstructionist governments and their leaders, black and white. "The most persistent myths about Reconstruction" which Krug complained about, simply no longer appear. Indeed, a text which lists him as a consultant in its 1971 edition contains a superb presentation of this topic.

6. Where space does not permit, or where textbook content is inadequate, direct attention to recommendations (1) to (4) in reading references and supplementary questions.

Supplementary reading lists in the texts surveyed for this edition of our study do include many more specialized titles dealing with black Americans than have appeared in the texts of even the recent past. But, since these suggested readings are rarely required of students and almost as rarely read by teachers, we would not place as a high priority among our criteria such reading lists, lest they tempt authors to substitute them for adequate scholarship in the main body of the text. This does not mean that we view such reading lists as unimportant. For one thing, there are

always a number of students who seek enrichment opportunities which can be provided by outside reading. What is vitally important is the inclusion of questions and exercises or activities drawn from the material on black American topics. On this score, most texts do offer considerable numbers of such opportunities to deal with the material.

7. Consider recommendations (1) to (4) in illustrating the history of the Negro.

Here the texts of the '70s have just about gone the limit. Hardly a text is not loaded with beautiful, exciting photographs and paintings with revealing captions, as well as charts, maps, and features dealing with black Americans. In this age of the visually oriented student, the texts have outdone themselves in many instances.

While a year after Carpenter's publication of her study, Morison and Commager were still referring to the black American as "Sambo" in their popular text, it just is not fair or realistic to fail to acknowledge the change which has since taken place. Even the 1960s, when a committee of California historians could still report that

The greatest defect in the textbooks we have examined is the virtual omission of the Negro.

no longer remains a valid conclusion.[3]

It is our conclusion that in this decade of the 1970s, this particular disgrace or failure of American-history texts has been eliminated. Yet, no text and no topic will ever be so treated that there cannot be improvement. Revisions will continue. Newer and better materials will emerge.

Much of what is now available ranges from adequate to plentiful. Some of it is superb. All of it is acceptable; a finding which no evaluation of the texts, including our own earlier editions, ever made. Selection or adoption groups must make their own choices among individual texts using their own criteria. We have attempted to pave the way by indicating some of the major strengths and weaknesses of the most recently published texts.

We did not review these texts in terms of their use for specialized black-studies courses. There are specialized texts for that purpose available. Our interest was the *general* American-history text, balanced and judicious in its treatment of the American experience in *all* of its dimensions, including, and even especially, black Americans in that experience. We have found that the current texts offer a satisfactory level of space and content which will give the student the knowledge and the values which are the responsibility of the American-history or social-studies classroom to provide.

[3]See Appendix A, "Excerpt from the Report of the History Department of the University of California, Berkeley." This document sets forth what we agree is "what a minimally full and accurate account should be." We conclude that most of the texts reviewed in this edition of our report meet the standards proposed by the eminent historians who prepared the California Report.

Perspectives in United States History

senior-high-school text

Peter J. Hovenier
Frederick M. Rosentreter
Willard E. Gandy
Ruth O. M. Andersen
Irwin Feller
Frank M. MacGraw
Norman F. Weaver
Field Educational Publications
San Francisco
1971

This is the senior-high-school version of the "inquiry-conceptual approach" of the Field Social Studies Program. The teacher's manual states its objectives in this way:

1. Conceptual objectives include a knowledge and understanding of people—how they relate to one another and to their environment . . . . In such studies, factual knowledge is necessary. But the emphasis should not be on the acquisition of incidental or undeveloped facts; it should be on the development of concepts, ideas, generalizations—those tools most useful in inquiring into and evaluating social phenomena . . . .

Since this is a text aimed at getting students themselves to observe, interpret, generalize, and evaluate, rather than simply to accumulate information in the manner that traditional texts have been designed to do, again, our evaluation of its treatment of the black American is shaped by criteria different from those we have operated by in the past.

The graphic materials in this text, and especially as they are related to topics dealing with black Americans, are more than simply attractive. As they do in connection with all topics covered in the text, they frequently go beyond the text to provide different kinds of information and additional stimuli, particularly for pupils whose learning styles are more attuned to graphic, than to verbal presentations.

Another aspect of this text is impressive to us. It makes "no bones" about seeking to "develop *values* that will be beneficial to themselves, their groups, their country, and all men." Consistent with that statement, the authors comment elsewhere in a section of the teacher's manual describing the contents of the text that

Religious and racial minorities are given extensive treatment in this book. The struggle of the Negro, for example, from early slavery to the development of a more subtle form of racism in today's society, is told in a detailed, straightforward manner. Hand in hand with a rejection of tokenism, the authors have made no attempt to cover up racism and bigotry in American life

wherever those forces have appeared against the Indian, the Negro, the Chinese, the Japanese, the Catholic, or the Jew.

Another statement which impresses us with its intellectual honesty is this one made in connection with a discussion on "a critical attitude:"

It is time to recognize that our history is one interwoven with a pattern of success and failure—and that one of the uses of history is to learn from the past, lest, as George Santayana wrote, we be condemned to repeat it. Remember, too, that a critical analysis is not a condemnation. It is rather a procedure for setting up constructive alternatives.

Finally, in conclusion, this comment is made concerning "the credibility gap" in history:

The myth-building approach to American history is still a popular one in some circles today. To such persons, a textbook that points out the gap between the "dream" and the reality would probably be an alarming document. But there is evidence today that young people want straight talk, not evasion. This book should help bridge the widening gap between what many students can accept as valid and what they continually find presented in traditional textbooks about their own national experience.

A text which offers such a remarkable set of tenets will be judged on its own terms. As we shall see, it succeeds in so measuring up.

Each of the units in this text has been written by a different one of the seven authors—a rather unique approach, and one that results in a freshness which is maintained throughout. The authors of the first unit, "America through Reconstruction," are Peter J. Hovenier, associate professor of social-science education at Western Washington State College, and Frederick M. Rosentreter, professor of history and department chairman at Southern Oregon College. Of the text's six units, only the first is history in the traditional sense. This first unit gives a rapidly paced account of the nation's experience through the end of Reconstruction. From that point on, the narrative branches out into five in-depth studies. Each examines the nation's past hundred years from the perspective of a different social-science discipline, combining the interdisciplinary approach with a deliberate emphasis on the modern period. The second unit, "Politics in America," was prepared by Willard E. Gandy, an associate professor of social-studies education. Ruth O. M. Andersen, chairwoman of the social-studies department at the Norwich Free Academy, was responsible for the third unit, "Foreign Affairs." "The American Economy," the fourth unit, was written by Irwin Feller, associate professor of economics at Pennsylvania State University. Unit 5, "The City," was authored by Frank M. MacGraw, associate professor of geography at Southern Oregon College. The last unit was written by Norman F. Weaver, professor of history at the State University of New York College at Buffalo.

The references to the black American are numerous and always reflective of the latest historical scholarship. Thus, early in the first chapter, in dealing with the Jamestown settlement, it is pointed out that

In 1619, the same year that America's first legislative assembly convened at Jamestown, another event occurred which also set a precedent in British America: A Dutch ship docking at Jamestown brought the first black Africans to Virginia.

These 20 Negroes, the first of many Africans to flow into the British colonies, were sold not

as slaves but as indentured servants. From the beginning, however, black people faced discrimination. They were usually kept in bondage longer than white indentured servants, and many of them were never set free at all. Within a very few years, they and their children had been made permanent slaves. As Virginia's tobacco plantations grew, more and more Negroes were brought from Africa, until finally the colony's entire plantation system rested firmly on the backs of her black slaves.

Not only are the facts in this passage comprehensive, but the value statement in the last sentence is a compelling one. A few pages later, in a section, "Colonial discrimination: black, red, and white," the text discusses the early discrimination faced by the black man. One paragraph discusses the legal status of black people in the various colonies and then concludes that

The fact remains, however, that black people, even those former slaves who had been legally freed by their masters, had trouble getting justice anywhere. When a white man and a black man had committed the same offense, punishment was almost certain to be more severe for the Negro.

This text manages to discuss the Boston Massacre in the next chapter on the Revolutionary War without mentioning Crispus Attucks! Yet we do not fault the authors, because the design of the text in terms of its historiography justifies such an editorial decision. Moreover, there are so many strong and positive references and statements that the text can afford such an omission. Thus, later in the same chapter, in a discussion of the topic, "Americans build a new kind of military," the following passage appears:

In both the English and the American armies there were Negroes, free and slave, who played important military roles . . . . Some black slaves, such as the navy pilot Caesar, performed so brilliantly that their state governments later purchased their freedom.

No text that we have yet surveyed has ever mentioned this hero, whose authenticity is established in any number of scholarly works on black history.

No references to blacks are made for the next two chapters, dealing with the "Constitutional Period" and "The Jeffersonians." In the fifth chapter, "The Jacksonians," in connection with a discussion of Southern feeling against the British, who in the 1830s and 1840s were interfering with slave ships coming to America, a diagram of the freight-like packing of slaves in the holds of slave ships is accompanied by a long caption describing the wretched conditions.

The next chapter, "The Impending Conflict," begins with a good discussion of the reform movements of the 1850s in a section, "Reformers demand more than the nation will deliver." The abolitionist movement is given the most attention here.

For all its achievements and hopes for the future, American society still seemed unable to expand its expressed ideals to the lives of nonwhites . . . Negroes, free or slave, were stigmatized as inherently inferior to whites and undeserving of the most basic legal rights or human considerations.

With this opening statement, the section goes on to compare both the moderate and the radical movements within the abolitionist campaign. However, because so much is surveyed, the detail and comprehensive coverage of the abolitionist movement is not as adequate as is needed; it is at least one of the instances in which we must observe that this text does not do a good enough job. There is in

this chapter a stunning reproduction of a painting by the black artist Jacob Lawrence, "Drilling Negroes." It shows a group of former slaves, freed and trained by John Brown, and accompanies the material dealing with Brown.

The last chapter of the unit is "War and Reconstruction." Almost at the outset, there is a section on black soldiers and their participation in major campaigns. A feature on the notorious Black Codes accompanies the material in the section on Presidential Reconstruction. The section dealing with Congressional Reconstruction is a rather short but certainly accurate presentation of the blacks' part in Southern politics. A half-page feature on Hiram Revels, the black senator from Mississippi, is included here. In the last paragraph on Reconstruction in this unit, the authors observe that "Expressed ideals and everyday practice were still at tragic variance in the United States."

The next four units of the text pass without any reference to black Americans in the subjects of "Politics in America," "Foreign Affairs," "The American Economy," and "The City." Not until the unique last unit, "American Values," in the last chapter, "The Blacks' Dilemma," do black Americans receive attention.

As much as we admire this text, and as comprehensive and splendidly written as is the special last chapter, we must express strong disappointment and outright criticism of this gap. Too frequently, American-history classes never get to the last chapter of their text. Moreover, for students to go through the amount of material which is included in the four units without any study of black American topics, does not jibe with one of the expressed aims of the text of giving strong emphasis on "minority history." On the other hand, the fact that this text also is being made available in separate paperbound units would certainly give those classes using this last unit one of the finest textbook surveys of black history now available. It is remarkable that a text should offer as a whole unit, "American Values," and then give the black American the comprehensive presentation that it does here, so that we cannot negate our basic enthusiasm for this text.

Let us turn to this chapter, "The Blacks' Dilemma," which is 37 pages in length and which encompasses the black experience in America from the Reconstruction period to the present. As has been indicated, this chapter appears in a unit on "American Values." This explains why the value statements are equal to the number of mere factual materials.

The introductory passages reflect the tone of this chapter.

> Black Americans have endured a unique experience within the American culture. During the years of slavery, they were separated from white Americans and denied participation in white culture at all levels. They came out of slavery hoping to become American citizens totally integrated into the American culture. They knew that emancipation would bring freedom, and with it, they thought, might come acceptance by whites.
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> • • • • • • • •
>
> But in the century that has passed since 1865, white Americans have repeatedly proved themselves unwilling to extend full citizenship to their Negro neighbors . . . .

The first section is a detailed description of the 50 years following the Civil War in which "several events had occurred to shape the direction of the Negroes' future. These developments later affected the attitude of blacks toward the American value

system." It is pointed out that Reconstruction had set a number of precedents. First, blacks were offered a taste of political power which vanished at the end of Reconstruction, "and from that time to the present the Negro has been helpless to control his own destiny in any way except on an individual basis." The authors conclude that by the 1960s this situation had been converted into a demand for black power. The second precedent was that black children were first offered education of a respectable nature during Reconstruction. But, by the end of the century, the dual-school system had been legalized by the Supreme Court of the United States, "and Negroes were trapped for generations in the inadequacies of the 'separate but equal' doctrine." Third, "the Negro's social status, tenuous at best in the 1860s and 1870s as the North and South fought to define a role for the race, worsened near the end of the century until the Negro population was reduced to the level of a caste. Jim Crow facilities were placed in permanent operation . . . and Negroes were required to live lives of permanent inferiority through the questionable means of 'separate but equal' facilities."

The details for each of these historical developments are what follow in the text. And what does follow is the most comprehensive coverage of black-American history for this period thus far encountered in our survey among the texts. The Washington and DuBois clash over possible solutions runs five pages of text and photographs. Again, to exemplify the "no holds barred" tone of this text, take this passage dealing with DuBois:

> By the 1930s, he becan to question the possibility that the Negro could ever advance within the American system, and as time went on, he concluded that progress of Negroes was hopeless until the entire socioeconomic system could be changed. An authentic American radical until the 1940s, after World War II, he became increasingly pro-Soviet. In 1961, at the age of 93, he formally joined the Communist Party and moved to the African nation of Ghana. He died there two years later. As an individual, DuBois had come to reject totally the middle-class white culture of America and to seek his own personal solution to that rejection. He did not lead many other Negroes at that late date in his life, but he foreshadowed the questioning that would follow in the 1960s about the possibility of Negroes ever achieving integration into the system.

The next section is entitled, "Urbanized blacks start to seek justice in the courts." It begins first with an account of the establishment of national black organizations, namely the NAACP and the National Urban League. Two photographs appear here showing a Washington, D. C., slum as it appeared after the turn of the century and as it appears today—worse, with blacks still inhabiting it! Subsequent topics are "The 1920s and 1930s bring slight gains," "A middle class emerges," "The Harlem Renaissance," "Black Democrats," "The NAACP assumes leadership," "The Sweatt case" (which made the argument for the first time that segregated education, by its very nature, could not be equal. The regular law school of the University of Texas was required to admit Sweatt, a Negro law student), and "the 1954 school decision." There is a long poem by Langston Hughes in this section as well as a number of stunning illustrations. The "Black Revolt" which began with the Montgomery boycott is the next major section. This episode is given four pages of narrative and illustrations. Subsequent topics are: "Congress acts for civil rights;" "Sit-ins begin;" "CORE and SNCC" (few texts give these two organizations much attention); "De-facto bias grows in the North;" "black militants emerge" (accompanied by a page-and-a-half feature quoting Stokely Carmichael on "black power"); "Riots scourge

the cities" (one of the most detailed presentations among the texts, including some photographs of considerable emotional impact showing "how it was"); "integration or separation?;" "Marcus Garvey," and "The Black Muslims" (with a page and a half feature on Malcolm X).

How important is it that this text does not refer to Marian Anderson, Jackie Robinson, or even Crispus Attucks? This has to be answered in terms of what kind of American-history course is being taught. This is a very specialized text, unique both in content and strategy. It pulls no punches in handling the black-American issue in the American experience. As promised in the statement to teachers, "the authors have made no attempt to cover up racism and bigotry in American life . . ." Both the format and the reading level of this text are appropriate for "advanced" juniors and seniors. Black and white upper-level students in the high schools who fall into that category should get this kind of history. What's more, teachers themselves will get much from it.

Quest for Liberty

junior-high-school text

June R. Chapin
Raymond J. McHugh
Richard E. Gross
Field Educational Publications
San Francisco
1971

This is a new text from a new publisher in the school-textbook field. Like a number of new texts included in our study, this one follows the trend of having students study history as historians do—using the methods of historical research to gain an understanding of the past. As its teacher's manual puts it, the text is "an innovative attempt to help students learn the research skills of historians and social scientists by working with the raw materials of history . . . Source materials themselves constitute more than a third of the total text." The philosophy of the authors here is that history is the study of controversies and demands interpretation. How this text treats the subject of black Americans must, therefore, be judged in terms of the text's approach and design.

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The first chapter of this text is called "Explorers in the New World." It does not

attempt to teach much about explorers, but rather the topic is used as an exercise to teach historiography by answering the question, "Who came first to America?" The usual major explorers are mentioned in this chapter and among them is a feature column on the black explorer Estevanico. The subject of black explorers comes up again much later in the ninth chapter, "North and South Divide Over Slavery," where the authors review "Slavery Before the Cotton Gin (1793)."

The slave trade grows in America: The first Negroes in America probably served as explorers. A Negro, Pedro Nino, was a navigator on the Nina, one of Columbus' ships. Negroes accompanied Balboa, the discoverer of the Pacific, and Cortes, the conqueror of Mexico. As you know, Estevanico was an African explorer who helped open up the Southwest for conquest by his Spanish countrymen. Hundreds of Negroes served in the parties of the French Jesuits in Canada and the Upper Mississippi region. Chicago was founded by one of them, Jean Baptiste Point du Sable. The Indians joked that the first white man to come to Chicago was a black man.

This is probably one of the best treatments of this topic among the texts surveyed in our study.

The second chapter, dealing with "Colonial Life in America," discusses the "Voluntary emigration" of the Europeans and then moves on to a section which gives an account of the forced emigration of blacks from Africa as another method for acquiring cheap, reliable labor in the colonies. A number of positive statements in this section contribute to developing good attitudes among the student readers. Thus, great emphasis is placed on the fact that "The African Negroes came from what many colonists considered a higher and more advanced culture than that of the Indians . . . White owners recognized the fact that Africans came from advanced civilizations, yet they continued to treat black people as slaves." The section goes on to point out that the first Negroes were not considered slaves, but were like indentured servants. A number of pages are devoted to describing the horrors of the Middle Passage. A long excerpt from "Life of Gustavus Vassa, Written by Him-Self," is included here.

The chapter on the American Revolution does include mention of Crispus Attucks, but does it in keeping with the historiographical approach of the text! After describing the Boston Massacre episode, the text states that

> The victims were considered martyrs, persons killed because of their beliefs. One person killed was Crispus Attucks, reported to be a runaway Negro slave. However, some historians are not absolutely certain whether Attucks was a Negro, part Negro and part white, or an Indian.

Placing a cloud of doubt on Attucks' race in the context of this text is not a point to be criticized. In the first place, there is some question about it. But more importantly, it is the kind of thing the text does throughout and there is enough proven history about American blacks in the text to give us confidence that the authors intended nothing devious in so doing! The passage describing the Battle of Bunker Hill mentions that "Peter Salem, an American Negro, became a local hero for shooting one of the British leaders, Major John Pitcairn."

Discussing the War of 1812, it is pointed out in the text that "About one fourth of (Perry's) men were Negroes." At another point, it is noted that 500 free blacks helped Andrew Jackson win his victory at New Orleans. Thus, we can see that

this text manages to get in the commonplace facts of black history in spite of the special design of its approach!

The first concentrated history of black Americans in this text appears in the chapter, "North and South Divide Over Slavery." A lengthy and detailed narrative account of the origins of slavery, the growth of the slave trade in America, its expansion during the colonial period, the numerous slave revolts—are topics covered in accurate and even exciting terms. Amid the factual account of how the first indentured blacks became slaves, the authors manage to make some important contemporary points for the student reader.

> In United States history, the story of black men begins with their arrival as indentured servants in Virginia in 1619, soon after the first shipload of immigrants landed at Jamestown. Some white bondsmen found it easy to run away to the frontier, where they could become trappers or farmers. But it was impossible for the African runaway servant to blend into a strange community, because of his blackness.
>
> This difference is still an important psychological point today. Because of the Negro's different appearance, many whites justified their different treatment of him. They believed in *white supremacy*, or the idea that whites were superior to blacks. Blackness became the sign of slave status. In addition, slave laws were adopted that reduced the Negro's legal status. Whites readily equated legal inferiority with inferiority as human beings. If something is legal, is it necessarily morally right?

All of this textual material is accompanied by a series of splendid engravings which contribute to the interest and excitement of the reading material.

"Slavery After 1800" is the next section in this chapter. Under the heading, "Life under slavery denies human rights," the authors discuss the harshness of slave life. Rarely does a text "balance" the less cruel examples of the slavery with a statement like this:

> Most historians today question stories of contented slaves and gentle masters. Slaves may have led decent lives in some places, such as at Thomas Jefferson's Monticello, but those places were probably exceptions. Slave owners used any method to control their slaves. After all, in 1860 a top field hand was as valuable as a new, expensive automobile is today.

The accompanying engravings show in one case a runaway slave escaping from his owner's bloodhounds. The other, a captured runaway is given the "cold-water treatment" literally, as he is whipped while his head is under a water pump. While this kind of textual material may strike the reader as unduly provocative, it is in fact not so in the context of the text as a whole. Furthermore, today's student is so familiar with violence that nothing less than this kind of historical evidence will make an impression upon him insofar as the conditions of slavery are concerned.

Following an excellent description of the slave codes, the text turns to the abolitionist campaign. Both the black and white leaders of the abolitionist crusade are identified.

Firsthand views of slavery are given to the student reader in order to consider the effects of slavery as well as to deal with the problem of bias in writing the history of this subject. Documents by a former slave, Josiah Henson, by Solomon Northrup, and by Booker T. Washington, are presented in this section. This is followed by a series of documents of the writings of a former slaveowner, and an overseer.

Finally, the views of Northerners and British observers are excerpted. Here is the kind of exercise the student is asked to engage in after reading all the accounts:

Think about the three groups of accounts. If the sources vary in reliability, is it possible to know what the true conditions of slave life were? How much additional information do you think you need? Think of other evidence, such as the existence of slave codes and runaways, that should be considered in judging slave life.

Historians search for agreement in source accounts. If they find that two or more independent and reliable reporters recount similar versions of an event, they may accept the reports as evidence. Which of the preceding accounts of slavery agrees with most other accounts?

The chapter on Reconstruction reflects the revisionist scholarship and as the following excerpt indicates, it instills a positive attitude in the students about the historical record of blacks in government.

A number of the new governments performed their duties well, establishing public-school systems, building roads, repairing the ravages of war, and improving the tax system. Many of these reforms were retained when southern whites came back into power after 1876.

At the same time, the authors present another aspect of the black Reconstructionists.

One of the big problems with the new state governments was that many Negroes in the South were illiterate and politically incompetent, because it had been illegal to educate a slave. The majority of the new government officials, therefore, were Southern and Northern whites.

The remaining pages of the chapter deal with the social aspects of Reconstruction. "Politically and economically, freedom had not brought the former slaves the life for which they had hoped. What would be their new social role?" The material shows how the "separate but equal" policy was adopted, the conflicting social philosophies of Booker T. Washington and "Negro activists" who challenged Washington, John Hope and W. E. B. DuBois.

No reference to blacks is made for several chapters following the one on the Civil War and Reconstruction, except for an incidental reference to the existence of a few black cowboys in a chapter on the West. The chapter on American industry includes no black references, although it might have done so, at least in the material on inventors. The next chapter, on "Labor's Response to Industrialization," includes a statement noting that "At one time, 20 percent of its (Knights of Labor) members were Negro workers." An accompanying engraving shows the black labor leader Frank Farrell introducing Terence V. Powderly, the head of the Knights of Labor, at a labor convention. This chapter also contains a feature piece on A. Philip Randolph. The textual material traces the history of blacks in American labor.

This being the kind of text that it is, there is no material on the cultural contributions of individual black Americans; but then there is none of this in relation to white Americans. Thus, this is a text which does not mention very many individuals, black or white.

The last major discussion of black Americans appears in the last chapter of the text in a section headed, "Civil Rights and the American Negro." This material covers all the major events and major civil-rights personalities of the '50s and '60s. Both the "moderates" and the "militants" are discussed in separate passages. Malcolm X is given considerable attention in the material on militants. As in most of the texts

covered in our study, the "extremist" movements and personalities, such as the Black Panthers and their leaders, are omitted. The final passage raises the question, "America's choice: one society or two?" The Kerner Report of 1968 is discussed in this section.

In summary, this is a splendid choice of a text for teachers who wish to teach history in the inquiry "mode" and at the same time give students not only a well-rounded picture of the America of the past but also the America of the present, which includes a fairly comprehensive presentation of the black American role in that story. More than giving students the facts of black history, the approach of the text provides them with attitudes which are likely to encourage sympathetic understanding and motivation to help resolve the racial crisis in America. In spite of the apparent "sophistication" of much of the material, we do think that the format as well as the adaptation of the source material is such that it can reach a large number of junior-high-school students and not just "better readers."

Rise of the American Nation

senior-high-school text

Lewis Paul Todd
Merle Curti
Mark M. Krug
Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc.
New York City
1972

This is the third edition of one of the most popular American-history texts in the country. We observed in our original evaluation of the first edition that "while it has its weaknesses in the area of the Negro, its strengths are far greater and the text must be ranked as the most satisfactory among the high-school volumes included in our survey. But it must be emphasized that there are disappointments." The current edition, however, is the standard that all future American-history texts must be measured against in terms of treatment of black Americans. There is no significant and relevant fact omitted; yet this has been achieved without even the appearance of overreaching in the area of black-American history. The material is fully integrated as part of the text, and flow is natural.

Merle Curti is a Pulitzer-Prize-winning historian, now emeritus after many years as Frederick Jackson Turner professor of American history at the University of Wisconsin. Lewis Paul Todd has had a long and distinguished career in secondary-school social-studies education, including 20 years as editor of *Social Education*, the official journal of the NCSS. Mark M. Krug, who is credited with a feature, "History and the Social Sciences," at the end of each unit, is professor of education in history and the social sciences at the graduate school of education of the University of Chicago, where he directs the training of history and social-studies teachers

in the M.A.T. program. As one of the earliest critics of the textbook treatment of black American history, Krug's association with this text was bound to have tremendous influence in the outcome of the new edition. It does.

At the very outset, the first chapter, on the search for an all-water route to Asia, notes that "Balboa's expedition, like many of the expeditions that pushed their way into the unexplored wilderness of the Americas, included Africans, as well as Europeans. Thirty Negroes, in fact, traveled in Balboa's party." On the following page there is a paragraph on Estevanico in a section discussing the exploration of the Southwest. Coming to the English foothold in North America in this opening chapter in a passage, "The Growth of Virginia," there are several paragraphs dealing with the arrival of the first Africans in 1619. "These newcomers were the first of countless thousands of men and women from Africa who were brought to the New World. In the years that followed, Africans worked with people from many other lands in building the English colonies." This statement, coupled with the numerous factual points made in the section, is an example of the value-and-fact approach used throughout the text, giving the student reader both a positive attitude and the "facts."

Black American participation in the French and Indian War is mentioned in a subsequent chapter dealing with this early period. In the next chapter, "The Start of an American Life," describing Southern planters, townspeople, pioneer farmers, frontiersmen, and Indians, there is a long section on the "Africans in the colonies—emergence of a class apart." Passages describing the "Middle Passage," "Slavery in the New England Colonies," "Slavery in the Middle Colonies," "Slavery in the Southern Colonies," "The Slave Codes," "Black Resistance to Slavery," "White Opposition to Slavery," "Free Black Colonists," and a summarizing passage, "Separate and Unequal," make up a substantial part of this chapter. The material is extremely detailed and revealing.

The next chapter on "Democratic Ideas in Colonial America," includes, very early, a section on the restrictions placed upon blacks, emphasizing the failure of Christianity to include the African-American population, and noting the different posture of the Quakers. Limitations upon education of blacks is integrated into the material on schooling. Phillis Wheatley is treated as an example of the exception to the situation. Several paragraphs and an engraving are devoted to the discussion.

In the chapter dealing with the events leading to the Revolutionary War, a paragraph is given over to Crispus Attucks in a way that makes a point as well as gives a "fact:"

> The first civilian killed was Crispus Attucks, a former slave, who had escaped 20 years earlier from his master. As a fugitive slave, he did not share the same degree of freedom as his fellow townsmen. Yet Crispus Attucks became the first person to die in the struggle between Great Britain and the colonies.

Coming to the Revolutionary War itself, there are several paragraphs describing the black-American participation in considerable detail. An engraving showing black soldiers fighting in the battle at Bunker Hill appears in this chapter with a caption which reinforces this contribution.

The text manages to mention black Americans in the chapter on the writing of the Constitution, with a short discussion of the Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth

Amendments, which were to "become the Constitutional cornerstones for the long and continuing struggle of black citizens to secure equal rights in American society."

A later chapter includes the longest passage on the black American role in the War of 1812, including an engraving with the caption, ". . . black and white sailors cheer as the Americans win a victory in the Battle of Lake Champlain."

An example of the natural way in which the material on the black American is integrated into the text comes in a later chapter discussing education and arts during the period 1817-1825. An engraving of Benjamin Banneker, "a free Negro from Maryland, was a self-taught mathematician, astronomer, and almanac-maker," is included among a variety of personalities important during the period.

In the chapter dealing with industrial America, 1820s-1860s, the section on the role of wage-earners in the early industrial system contains a passage of several paragraphs on the problems of black workers. It is noted that the aims of early labor unions did not include better working conditions for Afro-American workers. This vital historic antecedent of many of the issues facing blacks today is important to know.

Unlike so many of the texts which pass over the black American altogether or give the subject the briefest mention, here there are some detailed references in the chapter on the nation's expansion to the Pacific during this same period of the 1820s-1860s. A full paragraph describes the life and career of James Beckwourth; another passage discusses the blacks who arrived with the early settlers in the Oregon country; and a section on the "free black settlers in Texas" also is included here. The chapter ends with a paragraph on the blacks who were in the wave of "Forty-Niners" who came to seek gold in California.

While all the texts do indeed give important attention to the abolitionist movement in their chapters on the reformers of this same period, none equals the space and the depth which this text achieves. Running almost five pages, it leaves no aspect of the topic uncovered which should be covered in a secondary-school text. The earliest efforts by black people themselves are described in detail. David Walker's *Appeal* is given several paragraphs. The colonization movement is given considerable attention, including a passage of several paragraphs on the "faults in colonization." The concluding passage of the entire section reflects the theme of the presentation as a whole:

Influence of the abolitionists. Between the early 1830s and 1860, as you will read, the North and South drew further and further apart in their interests and opinions . . . . One of the issues, perhaps the greatest issue, was the institution of slavery. There is no question that the abolitionists helped force this issue by causing more and more Northerners to see the evils of slavery, and by causing Southerners to be even more determined in defending their way of life.

Finally, the end-of-the-unit feature, Dr. Krug's "History and the Social Sciences," is an in-depth review and study of the historiography of the abolitionists. It deals in detail with the historical controversy over the interpretation made by leading historians about the role and contribution of the abolitionists.

What is the truth in this controversy? Were most abolitionists agitators and fanatics? Or did they genuinely hate slavery and champion human freedom? How much did the abolitionists

contribute to the emancipation of the slaves? How much did they contribute to the conditions that led to the Civil War? These are the questions that will direct our inquiry.

This presentation is the capstone of the text's handling of one of the most important topics in American history, not just black-American history. There is nothing at the moment to equal it.

Coming to the chapter on the Civil War itself, the very first few pages include two sections dealing with abolitionists. One, "Growing Abolitionist Activity," describes the continuing pressure of the abolitionists during the war's earliest period on the government to issue an immediate declaration of emancipation. The second passage, "Abolitionist Gains," discusses the abolitionists' disappointment with Lincoln's policies (gradual emancipation, through payment to slave owners to free their slaves, and encouragement of a new colonization movement by blacks to Central America or the West Indies). Material on black contributions to the war effort is the most extensive among the texts. It begins with topics on the early exclusion from military service, the changing policy, and discrimination against black troops, then moves on to passages on black troops under fire, and ends with a lengthy piece on the 54th Massachusetts Regiment. In a later section on life behind the Union lines, a detailed discussion is presented on the New York draft riots. This gives the authors an opportunity to bring to the students' attention the issues behind that tragedy—the Conscription Act and the competition between black and white jobseekers.

The chapter concludes with several pages dealing with the fight against discrimination during the war years, again discussing the activities of the abolitionists. The end-of-the-unit feature, Krug's "Case Study in History," considers a topic related to black Americans, "Black Soldiers in the Civil War." No other text gives as much attention to the black participation in that war. The questions raised in this presentation reflect the purpose of the material.

Did Negro troops contribute to the Union victory over the Confederacy? Did the black community contribute to the cause of its own liberation? These are the questions we shall try to answer in this case study as we investigate the role of black fighting men in the Civil War.

Needless to say, the chapter is full of accompanying photographs.

The opening chapter of the next unit, "Rebuilding the Nation, 1865-1900," deals with Reconstruction. The first page presents an engraving of a black legislator captioned, "A civil-rights speech in the House of Representatives." Included in the material is a section, "Black Southerners in public life," an excellent example of the judicious and revealing approach of the material of the text.

Negroes were elected to the Southern "carpetbag" governments, and they played an important role in some of them. In recent years, however, some historians have pointed out that the Negro's role in these governments has often been exaggerated. Only one Negro served briefly as a Southern governor . . . . The record of black citizens in Reconstruction politics also has often been misrepresented, according to recent historians . . .

After these topical sentences, the text gives many details supporting the statements. It concludes that

The Negroes in public life during Reconstruction did not demand revenge upon white Southerners. In fact, most black leaders favored returning the right to vote to their former masters.

The records of those elected to the United States Congress compared well with the records of many of their white colleagues.

Almost without exception, the current texts reflect, as this one does, the revisionist historical scholarship of Reconstruction, so that in this instance the text is offering what the others do. But there is in this chapter a section, "The struggle of black Southerners to find their place in the New South," which gives a detailed account of the emergence of Jim Crowism and the Washington-DuBois conflict which is matched by only a very few of the other texts.

From this point on, which is the second half of the text, the material on black Americans continues in the same pattern: plentiful and integrated. There is not a topic or hardly a chapter which does not include such material. What is most impressive is that the text achieves this without giving the reader a feeling that this is essentially a black-American history. It is a big enough text to manage to have such a quantity of material come off as simply a piece of the fabric of the American experience.

A glance at the background of the collaborating authors and of the editorial consultants makes the achievement of this text an expected one. What must be noted here, however, is that the text does not in its format reach the inquiry-discovery approach level of many of the new texts we have reviewed. Furthermore, this is not a text for anything much less than "average" motivated students, let along average readers. Probably few below-average students could cope with it. The reading suggestions are indeed directed for advanced readers. It must be recognized that these factors limit the "market." However, considering the great popularity of the previous editions, that market seems to be broad. In any case, this text sets a standard for treatment of black-American history which is matched by very few others.

The People Make a Nation

junior-high-school text

Martin W. Sandler
Edwin C. Rozwenc
Edward C. Martin
Allyn and Bacon
Boston
1971

Both the very title and the cover illustration of this text reflect the essential theme and focus of the material: ". . . all our various, diverse, personal interests, as individuals within our society." Thus does the artist express the thoughts which inspired his illustration of "All our people pyramided and coming to an apex . . . onward and upward toward a common goal."

Two of the three authors are secondary-school educators—Martin W. Sandler and Edward C. Martin, coordinators of social studies in two school districts in Massachusetts. The third, Edwin C. Rozwenc, is professor of history at Amherst. We are always impressed with the combination of school people with professors.

Like so many of the new texts which are making the "new social studies" a reality, the "Note to the student" announces that "This book is probably different from any history or social-studies text you have ever read." It goes on to point out that instead of being expected to accept the author's version of what happened or of what people said, students will read firsthand accounts "by people who contributed to the making of America and secondhand accounts by many different historians and journalists." And even more importantly, students will be given the opportunity to draw conclusions and make judgments based on the evidence found in their reading. Beyond that, evidence other than reading is offered in a great variety of paintings, photographs, folksongs, cartoons, diagrams, charts, and maps. Indeed, the visual material in this text ranks as among the most beautiful and exciting we have ever encountered.

So strongly does this text carry through its basic theme that people make a nation—all the people—that there is no emphasis on, let alone glorification of, individual heroes. Rather, it deals with the role of groups of people and their contributions. Thus, the absence of the name of Crispus Attucks in the index in a volume which is being reviewed in terms of black history does not diminish the achievement of this text in providing a history of the black participation in the American experience. There is a level of both quality and quantity in its presentation to minimize the importance of individual "heroes."

In Unit I, "Founders and Forefathers: Who Were the People Who Made America?," the very first chapter, "Those Who Came First," presents the black immigrant in Gustavus Vassa's firsthand account of life on a slaveship and life as a slave after reaching America. This primary source is introduced with a splendid expository piece which sets the accurate and positive tone of the treatment of the blacks throughout the text.

> In our examination, thus far, of the various groups of people who were the first to face the challenges of the New World, we have spoken only of those who came to America free to pursue whatever rewards they could obtain. What cannot be ignored is the fact that there were thousands who came without freedom. These people fall into two main classifications—slaves and indentured servants.
>
> The first blacks were brought to America as early as 1619. If we are to seek answers to our basic question—"Who were the people who made America"—then we must keep two important facts in mind. There have been a great many contributions by black people to American history that have not been recognized; and the blacks' contributions have been limited by the fact that for more than the first two centuries of this nation's history they were held in slavery.

Two engravings accompany the document which illustrates the capture of the slaves in Africa and their confinement in a slave ship. The Vassa piece is followed by a secondary account of slavery in colonial New England. The account is by Lorenzo Greene, a black contemporary historian whose study "The Negro in Colonial New England," is a definitive work which teachers and students should know about. Later, in this unit, there is a piece dealing with present-day migration of blacks

within the United States. In each of these cases, the text authors' connecting narrative relates the situation described regarding blacks to that of other immigrants in American history. ". . . these new immigrants have been the millions of blacks who have moved from the South to the urban centers of the North. In the reading that follows, the hopes, the fears, and the problems of one of these new immigrant families are described."

The theme of the second unit is "Government by the People: How Can it Be Made to Work?" In this section, which presents primary and secondary source readings about the writing of the United States Constitution, there is a source reading from "The Records of the Federal Convention of 1787" which includes part of the convention debate on slavery and slave importation. This is too often overlooked among the texts, yet it is vital to understanding some of the root causes of current legal-political issues regarding race.

Unit III deals with "Politics in America: How Did It Come About?" There is no black historical role in the people and events dealt with in this unit and so its absence is not significant here. However, in the section of the unit dealing with "Third Parties in America," the Liberty Party, "the nation's first important third party," is dealt with in terms of the issue of abolitionism. The document used is a speech by James G. Birney, the party's presidential candidate. The speech is devoted to the "rights of one-sixth of our people"—the blacks.

The next unit, "Slavery and Segregation: Did the Civil War Change America?," focuses on the institution of slavery and racial problems in 19th-century American life. Contrasting views of slavery are given in primary and secondary accounts by slave owners, slaves, outside observers, and Northern and Southern politicians and statesmen.

Again, the introductory notes give excellent narrative information which fills in the student with the "facts." The former slave's account is one of the longest excerpts from Frederick Douglass' autobiography that we have encountered in a textbook. The outside observer's report is by Frederick Law Olmstead, whose book, "The Cotton Kingdom," is another "classic" in studying the institution of slavery.

What is as important as the choice of material presented to the student, is the kind of questions he is asked to deal with in their connection. It would be useful to quote in full the exercise which followed these readings to indicate how the approach of this text engages the student.

Values as a Basis for Selective Observation: Often, when people speak or write, they express opinions about what they think is good or bad, that is, what they value. Values are somewhat like opinions, but values are more basic, general, and permanent. Values are powerful forces which can determine how we view things, and therefore can influence what we describe.

In the selections . . . you read three different descriptions of slavery in the South. Some of the differences were due to the fact that they described different plantations. Some differences, however, were due to the fact that these men held different values about slavery. As a result, from what they observed on the plantations they selected different details to describe.

1. Make a list, in note form, of the details about slavery on a plantation that each writer described.

2. From your lists determine the values each man held about slavery, freedom, black people, plantation owners, and overseers.

3. How did each of the writer's values influence the details he described?

Look at the pictures of slavery in this exercise. An artist, like a writer, selects what he describes according to the values he holds. Study each picture carefully, then answer the questions.

4. What details in each picture seem to be emphasized?

5. From a study of these details, what would you assume were the values these artists held about slavery, freedom, black people, plantation owners, and overseers?

The next few documents deal with abolitionism, including a letter written to one of the agents of the American Anti-Slavery Society stating the purpose of the Society; a reproduction of a page from Garrison's *The Liberator*; a number of pages from Theodore Weld's "Slavery As It Is;" a narrative by Amos Dresser describing a mob attack against him as an abolitionist crusader, and, finally, John Greenleaf Whittier's "The Slave Ship." All of these are compelling and exciting sources dealing with the abolitionists.

"Slavery Defended" is the next group of documents. Again, there appears some of the most important literature in the field, in this case including an excerpt from George Fitzhugh's "Slavery Defended." There is also an example of the proslavery argument in poetry form. The concluding exercise gives the student an opportunity to evaluate the disagreement over the debate concerning slavery. There is also a group of paintings in addition to the statements and poems.

The effects of slavery on increasing tensions between North and South are shown in excerpts from a slave trial (Anthony Burns), "Uncle Tom's Cabin," campaign editorials, and a diary describing the month just before and after Lincoln's election in 1860.

The source readings and connecting narratives of the last part of this unit show, through actual pieces from Southern Black Codes and Reconstruction legislation and descriptions of the failures of Reconstruction legislation, how segregation replaced slavery following the Civil War. Photographs and readings show methods of terror and other segregationist practices used against blacks. The concluding section of this unit deals with the Supreme Court's decision upholding segregation (*Plessy v. Ferguson*) and gives two contrasing personal views by blacks—Booker T. Washington and W. E. B. DuBois—of the role and future of blacks in American life at that time. Using the inquiry approach as it does throughout the text, the exercises help students to evaluate and compare the readings and photographs and to think constructively and make judgments about controversial topics.

The following Unit VI, "The Reform Movement: How Did Americans Seek Social Justice?," includes two readings showing New Deal efforts, successes, and failures in helping the blacks. One reading is an excerpt from an article by Robert C. Weaver, an advisor in Negro affairs to the Department of Interior during the New Deal, and the other is an article from the NAACP's magazine, *Crisis*, giving a less favorable opinion of what the New Deal had done for blacks. This use of black writers of different opinions is an important strength in the text.

The last unit is devoted to three problems in American society—race, poverty, and youth. Part I, "The Problems of Race," begins with a selection showing the conflict between prejudice and American values in the 20th century. Primary and secondary accounts which follow describe the events of the Black Revolution of the 1950s and 1960s. To conclude this part of the unit, a variety of primary and secondary source readings present the "Strategies of the Black Revolution"—including the ideas of Martin Luther King Jr., Stokely Carmichael, Roy Innis, Roy Wilkins, and Thurgood Marshall, but unfortunately stops short of including a number of the "extremists" of the late '60s, such as Malcolm X and Eldridge Cleaver, something at least one of the other texts had the courage to do.

This is one of the few texts among those surveyed for this edition of our study which refers the reader to "see blacks" when turning to the entry for "Negroes" in the index. It is this which best characterizes the approach of this text. It is a strong, direct, and sincere attempt to portray the role of the black American in the story of America. Given the fact that this is an inquiry or discovery text, and not an orthodox "factual" text, it does a first-rate job in presenting American history for teachers and students who accept the proposition that history is many-sided evidence.

A People and a Nation

senior-high-school text

Richard Hofstadter
Clarence L. Ver Steeg
Harper & Row
New York City
1971

One comes to a secondary-school text by Richard Hofstadter and Prof. Ver Steeg, no small figure in American history, with a high expectation of historical scholarship and readability. Nor are we disappointed. This is an eminently admirable textbook history. There are, however, two limitations of importance in terms of our study. The first is that while the qualitative treatment of the selected topics in black American history is no less than superb, the selection of topics quantitatively may be too limited unless outside research is assigned and pursued. Secondly, the text is suited only for somewhat "above average" students. But perhaps this latter point minimizes the first *caveat* since it is most likely that advanced classes will be given considerable independent research. Beyond that, the need to know large numbers of "important" personalities and significant dates may not be so great.

Turning to the text itself, the first page of the first chapter, which deals with "The New World," includes a presentation of the Africans as among the "three migrations of peoples which had influenced the Americas before 1776." The black population is discussed in the next chapter, "Profile of the English Colonies."

In this same chapter, there is a detailed discussion of "The Status of Slavery in the Colonies." Taking a "scholarly" approach, this text does not unequivocally state that the first Africans were free servants.

> The record is not clear whether they were brought as servants or slaves. What is known is that in 1650 Virginia had both black freedmen and black slaves.

The beginnings of slavery are described, tracing its development from a period of years to slavery for life. A group of fine etchings accompanies the textual copy.

Th whole story of "Negro Enlistment" is treated in the material dealing with the Revolutionary War. This is one of the few texts which includes a full discussion of the hero of Bunker Hill, Peter Salem. The caption reflects the provocative treatment of the text.

A factor too often overlooked is the importance of the questions, activities, and exercises in a text in terms of what the text really wants to put across. One of this text's greatest strengths is the fact that it does offer strong reviewing of the narrative material dealing with black American topics through end-of-the-chapter questions. Thus, in this chapter, which includes considerable discussion of the role of the black person in the fight for independence, there is the following presentation:

> Peter Salem's record as a Revolutionary War veteran was laudable. Less so was the colonial policy toward black soldiers. Why would blacks fight in that war?
>
> 1. Identify and describe three colonial policies regarding Negro enlistment during the Revolutionary War. How do you account for their inconsistency?
> 2. How did the British encourage the Negro to join their forces in the Revolutionary War?
> 3. Give several examples of concrete action taken to emancipate slaves after the war. Why was the effort unsuccessful?

Two hundred pages of text then passes before another mention is made of the black American. But at this point, we are not prepared to call this a serious defect since we have come to believe that qualitative handling of key topics in depth is a more effective teaching strategy in history than is a sweeping survey mentioning everyone and everything. With the latter approach, sometimes no topic is treated effectively.

In any case, the next discussion or inclusion of the black American comes in the chapter dealing with the social-reform movements of the 1830-40s. The antislavery movement is a major section in this chapter. David Walker is given unusually comprehensive attention in connection with his "unforgettable pamphlet." As a matter of fact, William Lloyd Garrison received briefer treatment than Walker. The slave revolts are described in this section. Lovejoy's murder is given the most detailed treatment noted among the texts. A long piece on "Abolition v. Gradualism" is impressive. The concluding sentence in this section evidences the critical tone of the text—and its perceptiveness and candidness. "The movement failed to grapple with the issue of Negroes and their rights as Americans and as citizens."

The handling of "Th Institution of Slavery," in a later chapter dealing with national growth and the South, is perhaps one of the most satisfying this reviewer has found in any text. Typical of the strong value judgments, backed by reliable evidence, is

this passage:

> The workload of slavery did not account for the full burden of slavery. It was an inflexible fact that regardless of how diligently a slave worked or how exemplary his conduct, a change in status was beyond his reach. Being a slave ended all hope of improvement and excluded him from the American tradition of a better future which could be gained by skill, talent, and effort.

This section is followed by a broad discussion of free black men and women, a topic very rarely probed with as much detail as it is here.

The chapter on the Civil War includes a complete discussion of "Negro Enlistment." Again, the end-of-chapter exercises reinforce the narrative material.

For the Record—Data Collecting

Gather information about Negro involvement in the Civil War to answer these questions:

1. Who was Robert Smalls? What did he do?
2. How many slaves were freed by the Emancipation Proclamation?
3. When was the first Civil-Rights Act passed?
4. Who was the first Negro to receive the Congressional Medal of Honor for heroism during the Civil War?
5. How many men were there in the "U.S. Colored Troops" during the war? How many Negroes were there in other regiments?
6. What part did blacks play in the 1863 "draft riots" in New York City?
7. How many Negroes were in the Union army?

Not surprisingly, the chapter on Reconstruction is unmatched for its thoroughness and judiciousness. Prof. Mark Krug himself, who wrote a devastatingly critical analysis of the textbook treatment of this subject in the mid-1960s, could not fault this presentation. An entire section, "Improved State Constitutions," conveys the significant accomplishments of the Reconstruction governments. While the failures are indicated, it is noted that while

> These faults cannot be excused, nor should they be minimized, they must be considered along with the flagrant corruption in the North during the same period.

The text's later chapter on the settlement of the great Plains does not include any mention of the black cowboys. The next chapter, dealing with post-Civil-War industrialization, also omits all mention of the black American. This again raises the question of quantity vs. quality. Putting it another way, does the fact that the text handles Reconstruction both qualitatively and quantitatively, not make up for the omission of discussion in these two later chapters? We have already argued that conceivably, it can if what the text does is done well enough. However, there remains our own longstanding argument that to focus only on the problems of the blacks, overlooking their achievements, is a disservice both to American-history teaching and to black Americans themselves.

Nevertheless, this text does, in fact, deal later on with achievements of individual black Americans. Both the discussions on "Organizations of the Negro" and

the Harlem Renaissance include considerable amounts of material dealing with such achievements.

"Black Protest and White Response," in the chapter discussing the 1960s, is a considerable success in terms of its thoroughness and honesty. In a feature, "Contemporaries Disagree," there is a quote from Stokely Carmichael, "Must black power be violent?" Another quotation by Martin Luther King Jr. is entitled, "Or by nonviolent soul power?"

There is no question that this is one of the best examples of how far American-history textbooks have come both in their over-all pedagogy and in their level of historical scholarship. In terms of its treatment of the black American, what it does is done superbly. What it fails to do in terms of the quantity of information can be made up for easily enough in the kinds of classrooms in which a book of this kind is likely to be used.

The Americans:
A History of the United States

junior-high-school text ("slow learners")
Staff of the Social-Studies Curriculum Center,
Carnegie-Mellon University
Edwin Fenton, General Editor
American Heritage Publishing Co.
Distributed by Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.
New York City
1970

Aimed at "slow learners" in social studies, this text nevertheless follows the inquiry approach of the entire so-called Fenton series of social-studies texts. While there are connecting narratives by the editors, the bulk of the text consists of many kinds of writing, such as stories, letters, newspaper articles, and biographies. Pictures, graphs, charts, and maps are plentiful. In addition, there are recordings, filmstrips, and picture cards related to the text. A workbook is closely tied to the text.

The emphasis of this text not only is on learning "facts" about the past, but on thinking about the questions that these "facts" raise. Therefore, we do not look for as much factual material on black Americans as we might seek in orthodox texts. However, we have to consider the pitfall that inquiry-premised texts may omit too many "facts." This text is no exception. None of the "new social studies" texts is. However, there are many virtues about how the topics are handled in this text that what it lacks in quantity is almost made up for in quality. We are impressed with the skill and imagination that has gone into this "slow-learner" program. Too often, such programs do not rise above an elementary-school textbook in content or approach.

This is a text of editors rather than authors. The staff of the Social-Studies Curriculum Center at Carnegie-Mellon University, which is responsible for this text, reflects considerable competency and creativity.

The first chapter of the text, divided into 18 topics or parts, has no reference to black Americans. Except for one part, the material is devoted almost exclusively to Columbus and his voyage, this not so much listing of "facts" as an exercise in exploring the unknown. Several parts ask the students to engage himself in "unknowns today"—space, deep-sea explorations, et al.

Chapter two, "The Colonists," introduces the black American in part six, "Why Most Negroes Came." This exercise is based upon a filmstrip. The textual material gives us the feeling that it is a worthwhile inquiry exercise indeed.

(A Filmstrip)
You have seen what reasons the Pilgrims and many Germans gave for coming to America. Those reasons could also have been given by groups such as the Scots, the Irish, the Swedes, the Dutch, and the French. Usually, each group wanted to come to America in order to gain a new start in life.

Now, you will see on a filmstrip why another important group came. That group will be Negroes from Africa. But first, look at page 32 of your Workbook. Review the definition of the word *slavery* you will find there.

While not all Negroes who came to America during the colonial period became slaves, most did.

The map below shows where most Negroes in Africa were captured, the sea route they took to the New World, and the cities in the American colonies where many of them were sold as slaves.

The story of these slaves will now be seen on a filmstrip. The story begins with the capture of Negroes in Africa. The story ends as they are being sold as slaves in America.

As you look at the pictures, think about the following questions: 1. Why did African Negroes come to America? 2. Are any of those reasons similar to the ones you gave for moving? Other questions about the filmstrip are on page 36 of your textbook.

This exercise illustrates the approach employed by the text. It is a splendid way to learn why blacks came from Africa, and the fact that this text is aimed at the "slow learner" makes the mature approach doubly impressive.

Part 13 is a recording on "The Life of a Slave."

The recording is based on a description of slave life on Thomas Heyward's plantation. Thomas Heyward was one of the richest men in South Carolina during the colonial period. The person speaking on the recording is a fictitious character named Tom Williams. He plays the part of a slave.

Since we did not have available to us the filmstrips and recordings assigned in these exercises, we are limited in our comments to the topics and approach presented in the main text. This part is followed by a piece on "The Life of an Indentured Servant," based upon a letter by a man who came to America as an indentured servant in 1774. In any case, the contrast between the two classifications should have proved valuable to the student.

The chapter which follows, "The American Revolution," is largely a series of exer-

cises on why people revolt. Both historical and contemporary case studies are used. The Boston Massacre is used in a case study not so much about the heroism of the Americans or the brutality of the British, but as an exercise, "Should a Member of a Minority Speak Out?" It deals with John Adams' dilemma about defending the British soldiers. He was in a minority. The episode is described in greater clarity and detail than any presentation we have ever seen in any of the other textbooks. Crispus Attucks is not named because the names of the victims were not relevant to the point of the exercise. As a matter of fact, there are no military figures named in the chapter, not even George Washington himself. It is that kind of text.

Another example of the unique approach of this text is to cite here the last paragraph of the introduction to chapter five, "The Growth of Democracy." It is preceded first by a narrative describing a true incident in the New York City schools in which the mayor of the city was visiting a "slum" school building, and the principal grabbed a broom in front of the mayor to chase a rat which several students called out was headed toward the dignitaries in the room. The principal was reprimanded by the superintendent for not having informed his office of the conditions of the building. But, after the incident, public pressure brought about a new building a few years later and immediate repairs at the time.

> Many times in our nation's history, people have wanted to change the way things were, just as the principal and the parents wanted to change their school building. The men who fought the British in the Revolutionary War were trying to change the way the British ruled us. Writing the Constitution brought a change in the government. This chapter will describe the period between 1820 and 1844, when many people helped make the government a more representative government.

The chapter uses Andrew Jackson as a model for teaching the beginnings of party politics in America. The last part is a remarkable exercise on "Careful Thinking in Studying History," which on a level appropriate for the "slow learner," attempts to teach that which is attempted in the inquiry texts in this series aimed at "average" and even "superior" students, the methodology of history from hypothesis to conclusion. It does not use the sterile, almost insipid, copy which characterizes such texts so often.

The next chapter, "The Nation Grows," includes a part, "A Negro Goes West," which is a reading exercise.

> Most Negroes who went West went as slaves, sometimes in chains. They took care of the wagons and animals, searched for water and firewood, and sometimes hunted animals for their masters. Later, they cleared the land for farms and built cabins. Negro slaves also were used as field hands, miners, and cowboys.
>
> While most Negroes went West as slaves, some went as free men. One of the early American explorers of the Oregon Country was a free Negro named George William Bush. The following reading gives an account of Bush's early life on the Western frontier.
>
> As you read, think about what obligation a man should have to his family.

The selection itself is a portrayal of a loving father who makes many references to the problems he faced as a black man. This is a perfectly splendid way of integrating the black American into a study of the American experience. The selection is just one of several dealing with the West, and this natural inclusion is admirable. The theme of the chapter becomes relevant because several exercises are devoted to moving

today and the problems people face in moving into new neighborhoods.

"Slavery in America" is the next chapter in the text. Part one contains two readings, one, the observations of a Northern traveler describing slavery as he saw it; the other, an ex-slave describing his life under slavery. Again, this kind of historical treatment is offered to "slow-learning" students at a more simple level than that which is offered in the other texts. It is, however, exciting to see this attempt to give all students this kind of history. Part two presents a seven-paragraph narrative review of slavery. The opening passage sets the tone of the material.

In chapter six, we discussed reasons why people moved West. We discovered that some people went West seeking freedom and a better way of life. When possible, Negro slaves escaped to the West, seeking freedom from their owners.

Another section or part in this chapter picks up again "Conflicting Views of Slavery" in a skit which offers an example of the argument between the North and the South. "Your teacher may ask members of the class to read the skit aloud and have you listen. As you listen, think about these questions: 1. What did Southerners use as evidence that slavery was fair and just? 2. What did Northerners use as evidence that slavery was unfair and unjust?" This is followed by an exercise using pictures to answer the question, "Can a Society Justify Slavery?" Students are asked, "1. Were all slaves treated with kindness? 2. Should a nation allow human beings to be bought and sold?" The next part continues the issue by giving the student the testimony of a former slave.

It is not enough for you to know how others felt about slavery. Each student in this classroom should decide for himself whether or not slavery was fair and just. The next three lessons will help you make your decision. In the following reading, Millie Evans, an ex-slave, describes her life on a Southern plantation. As you read the account, think about whether or not you would have liked Millie Evans' way of life.

The second account is heard on a recording of another ex-slave. The summarizing lesson asks the students to think about the Southerners' arguments in favor of slavery. "Did their arguments show any good things about slavery? Were all slaves treated badly? Were any slaves treated well?" They are then asked to consider "the bad parts of slavery." Thus do the students get the opportunity to come to conclusions on their own. The approach provides learning how to think as well as knowing about issues in black-American history.

The abolitionist movement is covered in the next five parts of this chapter on slavery. "Abolitionists came from all walks of life. Some were black; some were white . . . . They fought against slavery in different ways." It is pointed out that some chose peaceful methods and that others wanted to use force.

In the first part of this chapter, you looked at how people from the North and South felt about slavery. Now you will see *how both slaves and freedmen protested against slavery* (italics ours). As you study this section of the chapter, think about specific methods that were used to protest against slavery.

The next exercise uses a recording of a spiritual, "Go Down, Moses." Here the students learn how the slaves protested through songs. This is followed by a long narrative about Harriet Tubman and the Underground Railroad. A record of a passage relating how Frederick Douglass worked to put an end to slavery follows. A reproduction of an article from Garrison's *The Liberator* is the next document.

The article attempted to answer a question asked by many Northerners: "What can we do about slavery?" As you read the article, think about whether or not a man should try to help others who are in trouble.

Prosser's plan of attack in his Virginia revolt is the last document. It should be evident why we judge the approach and content of this text in handling this topic of slave protest as among the best we have come across in our survey.

The chapter on "Civil War and Reconstruction" opens with the Anthony Burns case. "As you read the story, think about what obligation the people of Boston felt toward Anthony Burns." The Dred Scott case, John Brown's raid, and an exercise on "Obligations About Slavery" are the next few topics in the chapter.

You have been studying about obligations people had over the issue of slavery. You learned about men such as Anthony Burns, Dred Scott, and John Brown.

Students are asked whether the people in Boston should have helped Burns, whether Dred Scott should have obtained his freedom, and whether John Brown should have attacked the armory at Harper's Ferry.

Coming to the Civil War itself, the chapter includes a piece on "Black Soldiers in Battle," which describes the 54th Negro Regiment and the battle at Fort Wagner under the leadership of Robert Gould Shaw. While the battle was lost, ". . . the black troops had proved their courage against a stronger enemy."

Several pieces in the material on Reconstruction deal with the black American role and participation in Reconstruction: "The Freedmen's Bureau," "Booker T. Washington," "Jim-Crow Laws," and "Reconstruction—Good or Bad?" are among the topics.

As do most of the texts, chapters on industrial growth, the farmers, and the city, pass over the black American. It is disappointing to note that the chapter on immigration does not deal with the special kind of immigrant that the black American was, as a number of texts have done.

A good many chapters pass in which the black American is not dealt with before coming to the next to last chapter, "Protest and Change."

In chapter three, you learned that Americans revolted against England in 1775. Now you will read about how Americans today take action to change the things they do not like.

Civil rights and black Americans dominate a chapter which also deals with the student protests for change in the schools and universities. The chapter is "America and the World," and there is no black American topic here.

This is a splendid text on two grounds. First, its treatment of black Americans, while not always as comprehensive as it might be, is nevertheless a comparatively adequate presentation in terms of space. What it does report is done with considerable depth and imagination. While it is aimed at the "slow learner," it maintains a high level of material and a varied, sometimes exciting methodology and teaching strategy.

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America:
A Modern History of the United States

senior-high-school text
Frank Freidel
Henry N. Drewry
D.C. Heath & Co.
Lexington, Mass.
1970

Frank Freidel is one of the nation's leading historians. He is a professor of history at Harvard and has taught in universities all over the United States, and he has lectured on the five continents. He has a number of associations with secondary-school teaching, including service as chairman of the American Historical Association's committee on the teaching of history in secondary schools. Henry N. Drewry has taught in the Princeton, N.J., public-school system and has been chairman of Princeton High School's social-studies department.

If the focus of this study was on American-history texts in terms of their over-all effectiveness as a vehicle for teaching American history, we would have to say that this is certainly one of the very best texts presently available. "Today, we consider history not only as a body of knowledge but also as a process, a way of studying and writing about the past." Making this comment in the teacher's manual, the text follows through with a vast variety of materials and features designed to involve the students directly in the historical process. This it does to a degree usually found only in special supplementary kits and materials. It thus does meet the challenge that texts have been facing in the social-studies classrooms. Having said all this in praise of this text, we must also say that in terms of its treatment of the role and participation of the black American in the American experience, it is a mixed bag.

Benjamin Banneker, for example, is mentioned in this text not in the context of the planning of Washington, D. C., not in connection with the Colonial period or the early days of the Republic. He is mentioned in a much later chapter, after more than 250 pages of text have passed, which deals with the America of the 1820s through the 1850s. It is a section on free blacks, in itself an excellent presentation, which brings up Banneker's name. After pointing out that "free Negroes, even in Northern cities, were more discriminated against than immigrants, and quoting at length from the commentary of Gustav de Beaumont, who accompanied de Tocqueville to America, it is noted that

> Few white Americans, no matter how liberal, would concede equality to Negroes. This was true even of Thomas Jefferson, author of the Declaration of Independence and no lover of slavery. A self-taught free Negro, Benjamin Banneker, sent Jefferson a copy of one of the almanacs he prepared in the 1790s and suggested that it was evidence that Negroes possessed talents equal to those of other races. Jefferson replied courteously, but ungenerously expressed to a

correspondent his suspicion that Banneker had been aided by a white friend. It is worth noting, however, that another Southern white, James McHenry, Secretary of War under John Adams, wrote in the introduction to the first almanac,: "I consider this Negro as fresh proof that the powers of the mind are disconnected with the color of the skin."

This strikes us as a spendid integration of a number of different points about the role of the black American in the events of the period which comes through unforced and quite naturally.

Very early in the text, in a chapter, "The American, This New Man," there is a long piece on the Africans being brought to the New World against their will, showing that they came first as indentured servants and later as slaves. This material is presented through the life and writings of Olaudah Equiano, an African who was a member of an Ibo tribe of the Kingdom of Benin. He had been kidnapped, lived to write a vivid and essentially accurate account of his background and experiences, which describes for the students the forced immigration of Africans as no textbook author could do.

Later, in this same chapter in passages dealing with arts and letters of the colonial period, Phillis Wheatley is brought into the narrative in a most natural way.

Colonial literature tended to be either derivative from England or utilitarian. Most poets were somber religious rhymesters. Massachusetts produced two women poets: Anne Bradstreet, daughter of a governor in the 17th century; and Phillis Wheatley, a slave who had been born in Africa, in the 18th century. Both wrote poetry that closely followed English models.

Accompanying this narrative is a half-page photograph of a copy of the first edition of Miss Wheatley's poems held by a pair of black hands.

Throughout the text, black American figures and topics are interwoven in this highly effective way.

Chapter 16, "Reconstruction and Rights for Negroes," is the only chapter in the text with a great deal of material on the black American. Apart from this topic (and it is certainly one of the finest and strongest presentations available in any text), the quantitative treatment of the black American is comparatively sparse in a text of over 700 pages.

But this is a textbook which does not even mention the Boston Massacre, so that the fact that Crispus Attucks is not mentioned does not begin to suggest that the authors purposely intended to overlook black heroes. Indeed, very few white heroes, if any, are mentioned in this text. The emphasis of the text is on process and not on content, so that the quantitative level of black American references does not reflect significant omissions. The qualitative level of the subjects dealt with in terms of content is so well done in almost every instance that the line or page count hardly matters.

Even in the modern period, the civil-rights revolution is treated, again, comparatively lightly, and very few black leaders are mentioned. All of this raises some very real questions, which, in varying degrees, are appropriate for a number of texts surveyed for this edition of our study: To what extent does a particular teacher or committee of teachers want to give up black-American history content for historical process, but yet retain a very qualitative level of such content as is included? Are they willing and equipped to make up the deficiency with supplementary

materials which are certainly available? Finally, do they want to emphasize process as much as this particular text does?

In our own judgment, this is a very fine textbook which succeeds in providing an important dimension to the teaching of American history better than many other texts. Yet at least a handful of others also manage to offer more material, quantitatively, on the black American. All the texts with a strong focus on process and inquiry sacrifice, quantitatively, black American content as they do many other topics. Only the adopting teachers and committees can weigh and determine the factors which lead *them* to one adoption or another.

American History for Today

junior- and senior-high-school text

Margaret Stimmann Branson
Edward E. France (Consultant)
Ginn and Co.
Lexington, Mass.
1970

In its introduction to the text, in the teachers' manual, this volume very quickly and pointedly states that "This is not a traditional American-history text. Rather, it is a text designed to 'tell it like it is' for *all* the American people . . . The role and contributions of *ethnic groups:* American Indians, Spanish, Black, Oriental Americans, and other minority groups, *are emphasized throughout the entire text.*" And the italics are the publisher's, not ours. Beyond this, the text includes the following passage in its opening section, "To the Reader:"

"American History for Today" is a new kind of textbook. It tells the history of *all* the people of the United States. Too often the great contributions made by the so-called minority groups have been skimmed over. In some cases, the existence of these groups and their members has been almost completely ignored. But now, in this different textbook, every American will feel a sense of pride in discovering how his people have helped make this country the last best hope of the earth.

The section goes on to make some overview comments on the role of the American Indians and the "people of Spanish and Mexican-American origin."

Another paragraph discusses the Chinese and Japanese settlers in America. And, finally:

Then, too, there is the story of the black man. Working under the very hardest of conditions, he has given his intelligence along with his blood, sweat and tears to the land that is the United States. He has fought in every war. He has enriched the nation with music, dance, and literature. He helped to build the great plantations and made important inventions and discoveries. One of his greatest contributions has been his constant fight against oppression. But for him, there would be much less freedom for all in this land of ours.

While few students read introductions to texts, it is nevertheless worth noting the strong attempt on the part of the authors to make clear that this text will give the black American a full-blown treatment within a book not promoted as a special text for Afro-American history courses. Nor is it such a text. This text manages to give extensive coverage of the black American while remaining a basic American-history text for the "general" survey course in American history.

It is not surprising to also note that this is one of the few texts which lists the "consultant" as one of the two authors on the title page, if not on the cover. Edward E. France, the consultant, is professor of American history and chairman of the Afro-American studies department at California State College at Hayward. That helps to explain the considerable black history in this text. The actual author, Margaret Stimmann Branson, is supervisor of social sciences in the secondary schools of Oakland, Calif. She has developed the inquiry approach of this text, which is another distinctive aspect of the material. Much of the material is in question and answer form. Narrative text is extremely limited. Since it is not within the purposes of our survey to evaluate this or any text in terms of pedagogy, we will say no more than that, for us, it is a methodological design with which we are not wholly comfortable. But, in terms of the treatment of black Americans, it is surely one of the most successful that we have surveyed. This is not to say, however, that the quality of the writing or the profoundness of the ideas are always impressive. "One of the most successful," in this instance, is pretty much confined to coverage in scope, if not always in breadth.

Early in the unit on discovery and exploration, a feature entitled, "Red, White—and Black" makes the point that "America was settled by men of all colors . . . It is too often assumed that the New World was discovered and built by white people alone. The fact is that blacks were present along with the first explorers who arrived . . . Men of all races helped build America." On the next page is a full-page feature dealing with Estevanico, the black scout who explored the American Southwest in 1539.

The second unit, "Settlers in English America," handles the introduction of blacks to America in a section headed by the question, "Why is the year 1619 important in American history?" Of three "very important events (which) took place in colonial Virginia, the arrival of the first Africans is listed first. While the text describes them as servants who were "given their freedom after a time," the illustration accompanying this passage has a caption referring to the "African slaves" who "are landed from a Dutch ship in Virginia 300 years ago." This inconsistency ought to be rectified in a future edition. Several pages follow, illustrating the high civilization of the old African kingdoms from whence the African slaves came. The textual material describes the kingdom of Songhay and relates how Africans became slaves. A short featurette concludes the chapter, and deals with "The First Negro Child," William Tucker, the first black child born in the English colonies.

A second featurette in the section on the settlement of Pennsylvania in this unit discusses the Quakers' enlightened views on slavery. This strikes us as worthwhile information. The concluding page of the unit offers a feature on the relationship between the blacks and the Indians during the colonial period.

The next unit, on the growth of the English colonies, contains a long passage on

the life of New England blacks and the problems of free blacks, which is certainly valuable. A reproduction of Phillis Wheatley's book of poems accompanies this section. Further on, another section deals with the experience of New York with slavery. The earliest of the slave revolts (1741) is described here.

Turning to life in the Southern colonies, the materials explain why most slaves lived in the South, how the slaves were brought there, how they were treated, and what jobs they performed. The text makes the important point that Northern ship owners were to be as much blamed for slavery as the Southerners and tells why. Another point of honest history is the observation that "African slaves were sometimes victims of their own chiefs [who] . . . for a price, sold their own people (sometimes prisoners captured in battle) to the Arabs." As for the treatment of the slaves, the characterization is blunt:

> The worst problem of the African Slave in the 13 colonies was the way other people regarded him. He was looked at as property, instead of as a human being. Thus, like a chair, table, or work horse, the slave had no rights . . .

The usual diagrams and broadsides on slaves in the shipholds and on slave auctions accompany this material. In connection with the kind of jobs performed by the slaves, it is pointed out that slaves worked at skilled jobs in some cases and that "a few held 'white collar' jobs, such as clerks or medical assistants."

The chapter on the events leading to the Revolutionary War includes a feature on Crispus Attucks. While it is conceded that "Not much is known about" him, he is very definitely described as having been born a slave and "of light color." The chapter on the Revolution itself contains a section on blacks who served in the war, naming a number of black spies whose work resulted in military victories.

The next mention of black Americans appears a number of units later in the first chapter dealing with the early years of the new republic. This comes in a full-page feature on Benjamin Banneker. It is one of the best presentations of this interesting figure which has appeared among the new texts.

The slave revolt in Haiti is described in a feature in the section describing the Louisiana Purchase. It is contended that "A Negro uprising against the French in the West Indies helped the United States to make the Louisiana Purchase." This proposition is based on the "fact" that, because of his losses in the revolt, Napoleon "could no longer hold Louisiana. Therefore, Napoleon sold Louisiana to the United States." This is probably valid history, but it is still something of tortured history to call this episode a black American contribution to the expansion of the United States.

It is somewhat surprising that the only reference to black Americans in the chapter on the War of 1812 is the single sentence that "Among Jackson's men were two battalions of Negroes." We might have expected to read of Jackson's tribute to their contribution to the victory at New Orleans.

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People who demanded the immediate end of slavery were called abolitionists. They wanted to *abolish* slavery. They said the laws of God were "higher" than any laws which human beings could make. According to the abolitionists, the Constitution of the United States was wicked and "an agreement with hell." This was because the Constitution permitted slavery to exist.

This is the entire discussion responding to the question. One still does not know who the abolitionists were, and certainly Garrison's provocative characterization of the Constitution should hardly be quoted as representing *the* abolitionists.

The very next passage asks, "What did the 'Black Abolitionists' accomplish?" Certainly it is commendable to deal with the black abolitionists and to discuss them first. But compared to the page and a half devoted to Garrison and his *The Liberator*, after a two-sentence reference to Frederick Douglass as "The most famous Black Abolitionist," the treatment of black abolitionism comes off a second best. One might expect Douglass' newspaper, *The North Star,* would be mentioned.

The following unit, describing the nation's expansion and the American frontier, includes a half-page feature on James Beckwourth, "the famous black scout (who) discovered a pass through the Sierra Nevada Mountains." This is a figure too often overlooked by texts.

The unit discussing the events leading to the Civil War and the war itself contains several pieces on slavery. A section, "How serious were slave revolts?" describes three major slave revolts as well as the 100 revolts which took place between 1663 and 1865. A subsequent passage discusses the "other ways" in which slaves protested. "One favorite trick was to pretend they were sick. Another was to break tools so that no work could be done." After describing several more examples, the passage concludes that "Records of plantation owners show that every possible way to protest was used, including running away." There is a good description of the Underground Railroad, coupled with a map showing the various routes followed.

Raising the question, "What was the single most important fact about slavery?" the text states:

Few Americans—North or South—really understood the single most important fact about slavery in the 1850s. That single fact was that only Negroes were still slaves. The problem of slavery was really a problem in race relations. Even when slaves themselves were set free, the problem of how blacks and whites could live together in peace was not solved. To this day, black and white Americans are trying hard to improve relations between the two races.

This is followed by two questions: "What was the real problem of slavery? Did freeing the slaves solve the problem?" This consideration of slavery as being a social problem rather than simply an economic one is one of the few instances of insightful comment made in a text otherwise replete with commonplaces.

Reconstruction is handled simply but judiciously. The heading of the section is "Good and Bad in Reconstruction." There is a passage asking "What was bad about Reconstruction?" One oversimplified short paragraph states that

There is no doubt that graft and theft took place. The worst of the Reconstruction legislatures bought hams, perfume, champagne, and even coffins with public money. The public debt doubled and tripled in the Southern states.

The passage dealing with the "good" of Reconstruction is expanded into two paragraphs and the material is more revealing and more readable. We ourselves learned that South Carolina got its first divorce law under the Reconstruction government. The section includes a full-page photograph of "The Radical Members of the South Carolina Legislature," which we had never seen before. The caption for this picture gives the only reference the text makes to the black senators from Mississippi. A feature, "The Failure of Reconstruction," concludes the section on this topic. It includes the statement that "In many ways, the Civil War was fought to benefit the Negro." This does not seem to be appropriate, let alone accurate, in any strict historical sense. Apart from this, the passage makes some pointed value judgments on the consequences of Reconstruction's failure. The last two pages of the chapter trace the emergence of Jim Crowism in the South and conclude with a paragraph on the 1954 *Brown v. Topeka* case, which reversed *Plessy v. Ferguson*, which is, of course, discussed in this section.

In the unit dealing with the "Disappearing Frontier, there is a single reference to blacks in a section discussing cowboys. "Among the men riding the trails were more than 5,000 Negro cowboys." Something more than this might have been expected in a text of this design.

A section, "A Nation of Immigrants," in the following unit on "Urban America," includes a full-page feature on "African Immigrants," which begins with the statement that "Except for the first settlers at Jamestown, the Negro's roots in America are deeper than any other group from across the Atlantic." It then retraces the advanced civilization of the Africa from which the blacks came and makes a number of general observations about the contribution of black Americans to American culture. "The people who were brought here by force in slave ships have done more than their share in making America great."

No reference to black Americans is made in the long section on labor unions in the late 19th century or in the next section, on the farmers. There are, however, several pages dealing with the early "Negro protest groups," the NAACP and the National Urban League. It is here that there appears a one-sentence reference to the Washington-DuBois controversy. The caption under a photograph of Booker T. Washington states that "Booker T. Washington urged Negroes to be patient in their struggle for equality." This is the entire reference to Washington in that matter. In the text on the same page discussing the Niagara Movement, there is a single sentence, after identifying W. E. B. DuBois for the first time. "He did not think that Booker T. Washington was moving fast enough." This hardly sheds any light on this crucial conflict in the black-protest movement.

A full paragraph is given over to the participation of black Americans in the fighting in World War I. The next unit includes a passage on the black Americans during the 1920s. No individual figures are named.

After the war, Negroes stayed in the North [the first paragraph discusses the migration of about a million Negroes from the South to the North between 1914 and 1920]. Talented authors, musicians, educators, artists, and entertainers became famous for their accomplishments. In fact, the 1920s are often called a time of "renaissance" or rebirth for Negroes because of their many outstanding contributions.

The passage describing the impact of the Great Depression on blacks reflects the

somewhat casual explanations frequently found in this text.

Negroes who had moved to cities complained they were the last hired and the first fired. They were probably right. As a group, Negroes were hard hit by the Depression.

As times grew worse, many jobs then thought of as "Negro" jobs were taken by whites. Ten years earlier, whites would not have considered these jobs.

There is an excellent feature on Mary McLeod Bethune, a much-overlooked black personality who became well known in the early years of the New Deal. It is in this piece that the text takes the opportunity to mention a number of black appointees of Presidents Truman and Johnson.

The changes for minorities brought about by World War II are given lengthy treatment in a later section of this unit. Many of the texts included in our survey miss the opportunity to include a reference to black Americans in their units on world affairs or world leaders. This text's feature on Dr. Ralph Bunche is a good example of how to avoid that gap.

Since full integration of all the armed forces took place during the Korean War, it is not unusual that this text should present a feature, "Black and White Fight Together" in this same unit on the United States in world affairs. However, it is the only text we have surveyed which has in fact given such full-dress attention to the Korean War in connection with the black American. Specific heroes who were honored for bravery are mentioned in this feature. In view of the many distinguished black Americans who are not mentioned anywhere in this text, we wonder why the authors determined that Korean war heroes should be acknowledged.

The unit on the Eisenhower years includes several pages of text on the civil-rights movement with special emphasis on the school-desegregation cases. The Little Rock episode and the Montgomery boycott are given lengthy treatment. A half-page feature on Thurgood Marshall appears in this section. The sit-ins and the works of Martin Luther King Jr. are also detailed.

In the last unit of the text, "Great Plans, Great Problems," there is a final section on black revolution of the 1960s. This is one of the single lengthiest pieces in the text, covering the whole range of the period. There is an excellent passage on African Americans who have been elected to office in the last few years. A lengthy discussion of the Black Muslim movement is in this section, including the questions, "What demands do Black Muslims make?" and "How do other Negroes look on the Muslims?" In addition to meaningful discussion of black power, there is a piece on the Black Panthers—something that almost all of the new texts have avoided discussing. However, the usefulness of the passage is very limited since it does not mention many of its activities, or does it mention any of its leaders, including Eldridge Cleaver. While these movements have lost their significance by the 1970s, they nevertheless have historical interest at this point of time.

Liberty and Union:
A History of the United States

junior-high-school text

Raymond J. Wilson
George Spiero
Houghton Mifflin Co.
Boston
1972

Raymond J. Wilson is associate professor of history at Smith College. He has taught at Arizona, Wisconsin, and Columbia Universities. But, in addition to his university experience, Professor Wilson has helped to develop resource materials in American history for elementary- and secondary-school pupils. George Spiero is a teacher of social studies at a junior-high school in Farmingdale, N.Y.

The teacher's edition of this text declares that it reflects recent trends in teaching American history, and lists the following approaches included in its text: (1) Greater dependence on analysis and inquiry, (2)A multimedia approach to learning, (3)stress on social, cultural, and economic concepts, (4) emphasis on the multiethnic background of the American people, and (5) increased opportunity for the teacher to adapt the course to the needs of students. It is noted that "The roles played by blacks and Indians in the development of the nation are stressed throughout the narrative." To what extent and success does it, in fact, treat the black American?

The first reference to the black American in this text comes no earlier than the second unit, after 62 pages of narrative. No mention of blacks is made in the first unit, "Europeans Discover a New World." In the second unit, "European Nations Plant Colonies in the New World," a paragraph is devoted to Estevanico, who "was one of many Negroes who took part in early Spanish expeditions to the New World. (Negroes also were among the men who accompanied Balboa. Cortes, and Pizzarro.)" Following this, there is a series of one-sentence references to "Negro slaves" in one context or another until the first "multi-sentence" reference in the fourth chapter of unit two on Virginia where it is noted that

> . . . in 1619, a Dutch ship brought 20 Negroes from Africa. These first Negroes were also indentured servants who were to become free after working for a few years. Later, laws were passed which caused blacks to be treated as slaves.

Again, for the remainder of the chapter, there are single-sentence references to "Negro slaves."

It is in chapter five, "Life in the English Colonies," that there is the first detailed reference in a two-page section, "Negro Slavery Develops in the English Colonies." Here there is a competent, somewhat detailed discussion of the growth of the slave trade with a description of the "misery and hardships endured by slaves who entered

the colonies," which "were far greater than those of free settlers." Again, there follow a number of single-sentence references to "Negro slaves," until in the third unit there are references to Crispus Attucks in the Boston Massacre as "a former slave;" to Salem Poor's heroism ("a slave whose master had permitted him to join the Minutemen") in the Battle of Bunker Hill; and, finally, a paragraph titled, "Negroes contribute to the Patriot Cause."

More than 100 pages of narrative pass before the reference is made to a black American, Benjamin Banneker, who "assisted L'Enfant. This black American was an able astronomer, mathematician, and surveyor."

Some 50 more pages pass before the next reference to the black American appears, this time in a detailed description of plantation and slave life. Here, almost halfway through the text, are the first illustrations of black Americans.

Thus, a text which boasts that "The roles played by blacks . . . in the development of the nation are stressed throughout the narrative" hardly measures up to that contention.

In the second half of the text, there is a well-done section on black abolitionists in the chapter dealing with the abolitionist movement. There are, however, no illustrations of any of the important figures discussed in the narrative. There are, however, in the next unit, after 427 pages of narrative text, photographs of Frederick Douglass and Harriet Tubman in connection with a passage dealing with the Underground Railroad.

Black participation in the Civil War is handled in the caption of an illustration.

About 186,000 Negroes enlisted in the Union Army during the Civil War. The black recruits fought bravely and won high praise for their service to the nation. These black troops, led by white officers, are welcomed enthusiastically by blacks on a North Carolina plantation. The flurry of activity suggests that some of the slaves are planning to accompany the advancing troops.

Again, later in the same chapter, there is a passage describing the role of the blacks in the Union forces, which is quite comprehensive.

The discussion on Reconstruction is very well handled and the visual material quite ample.

The new state constitutions and new state laws contained many admirable provisions. Public schools were established for both whites and blacks. Voting laws were liberalized, and the rights of women enlarged. The courts and the county governments were improved. Many of the reforms put through during this period have been retained to the present day.

In fact, this text's treatment of the black American becomes increasingly strong as the text progresses, so that the modern period of American history as covered here contains more and better content than does the earlier period, an unusual twist among the texts surveyed. But lest too much be made of this, it must quickly be noted that "more and better" are in terms of the earlier pages of *this* text and not in comparison to so many of the other texts included in our survey for this edition. On that comparative basis, this text is surely one of the weakest in terms of its treatment of the black American. It must be stressed that "weakest" here does not

mean, as it often meant in the past, that its treatment is a reflection of poor scholarship or negative value judgments. Rather, it does not offer a significant amount of material on the black American in the American experience. And what it does offer is not impressive relative to what so many other texts in this survey do offer.

The American Experience

senior-high-school text
Robert F. Madgic
Stanley S. Seaberg
Fred H. Stopsky
Robin W. Winks
Addison-Wesley Publishing Co.
Menlo Park, Calif.
1971

Judging from the years in which they received their degrees, the 1950s and 1960s, the four authors of this text are comparatively younger than those of most of the texts included in this survey. This fact is in some measure reflected in the freshness of the design and approaches of their text. In addition to the four authors, there is an acknowledgment to no less than 20 historians and public-school teachers, supervisors, and departmental chairmen.

Robert F. Madgic has been a social-studies teacher and is now curriculum coordinator for an educational-consultant organization. Stanley S. Seaberg is a teacher of social studies and humanities, has been an educational consultant, and is the author of a number of books, including "The Negro in American History." Fred H. Stopsky is director of teacher education at Webster College in Missouri, and has taught American history in a number of school districts. He, too, has been an educational consultant. Robin W. Winks is professor of history at Yale University and is the author of a large number of works, including "Slavery in a Comparative Perspective."

The subtitle of this text is "A Study of Themes and Issues in American History." This is a highly sophisticated book which will undoubtedly be limited to secondary-school teachers and students with high motivation to teach and learn history in depth. The "For Further Reading" lists at the end of each chapter clearly reflect the advanced kind of teaching and learning that is expected of the students. Here is the list at the end of the chapter on "The Black Experience: The Negro Struggle for Acceptance," a chapter we shall come back to for detailed analysis later:

For Further Reading

Special Topics:

Negro Life and History:

"From Slavery to Freedom: A History of American Negroes," by John Hope Franklin

"The Negro in America," by Larry Cuban (A collection of readings in Negro History)

"Time of Trial, Time of Hope: The Negro in America, 1919 to 1941," by Milton Meltzer and August Meier

"The Souls of Black Folk," by William E. B. DuBois (A beautifully written analysis of Negro life at the turn of the century)

Reconstruction and Jim Crow:

"Reconstruction After the Civil War," by John Hope Franklin

Biography:

"Up From Slavery," by Booker T. Washington

"Lift Every Voice," by Dorothy Sterling and Benjamin Quarles (A book of biographical sketches of Negro leaders)

"I Wonder as I Wander," by Langston Hughes (A Negro poet and writer's story of his life and why he became a Communist during the Depression)

"Black Moses: The Story of Marcus Garvey and the Universal Negro Improvement Association," by E. David Cronon

Fiction:

"The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn," by Mark Twain (An American classic that contains an eloquent statement on black-white relations)

"Native Son," "Black Boy," "Uncle Tom's Children," by Richard Wright (Three powerful novels [actually, the last two are not novels] dealing with the life of American Negroes)

"The Autobiography of an Ex-Colored Man," by James Weldon Johnson (The story of a light-skinned Negro who tries to pass as a white man)

"Intruder in the Dust," by William Faulkner

"Go Tell It on the Mountain," by James Baldwin

Each unit is followed by a "Unit Essay," in each case an excerpt from the writings of distinguished historians. The text is laden with almost 100 charts, graphs, and maps. All in all, it is a very "deep" and complete historical survey.

The question for us in our survey is whether this text's treatment of black history has the quality and quantity of coverage consistent with its over-all aims and design. And the answer is, as we shall see, clearly "yes."

Two chapters, both in the second unit of the text, "To Form a More Perfect Union," deal exclusively with the black American. Apart from these two "separate" or "segregated" chapters, the remaining references are integrated with the text as a whole.

Before coming to the first of these two chapters, we might note how or what references are made in the material before this. Crispus Attucks, for example, comes up in the caption of the Paul Revere engraving of the Boston Massacre in a very interesting way:

Deliberately drawn to promote anti-British sentiment, Paul Revere's engraving of the Boston

Massacre was considered so inflammatory that one defense lawyer at the trial of the British soldiers warned the jurors against being biased by prints that added "wings to fancy." Not only was Revere well aware that the shootings did not occur in the wanton fashion depicted in his broadside, but, strangely enough, he drew the martyred Negro seaman Crispus Attucks as a white man.

Then Attucks' name appears again in the first of the two chapters mentioned, "Slavery: A Question of Social Conscience." The commendable tone and aims of this chapter are reflected in the opening headings and notes which, incidentally, precede every chapter.

Main Themes and Concepts:

slavery, social conscience, reform, prejudice

In the three decades preceding the Civil War, several crises occurred in the social conscience of Americans over the issue of slavery. Many reforms were attempted in an effort to eliminate the prejudices that sustained slavery. Despite the abolition of slavery, racial unrest continued. In this chapter, look for developments in race relations brought on by the institution of slavery that still have influence today.

Certainly, this is a most desirable and exciting approach. The emphasis on values and on contemporary relevancy is just the right way to deal with today's youngsters.

The chapter begins with a discussion of the misery suffered aboard the crowded slave ships, documented by a ship's log. The first topical heading is the "Background of American Slavery." Not only do the passages contain considerable information, but they also make some compelling subjective comments.

Throughout the 17th and 18th centuries, various classification systems were developed to categorize mankind and to separate the white man from his fellow humans. White was often considered to be the natural skin color, and white and superior gradually became synonymous terms. White Americans first accepted the idea of white superiority in their contacts with Indians and then extended it to Negroes. Political, social, and economic reasons were given for believing in the permanent inferiority of Negroes. By regarding all black people as inferior in ability to the white, Americans found sanction for the institution of slavery.

This is one of the best examples we can offer to demonstrate how far the texts have gone in offering candid history.

The role of the black American in the Revolutionary War is quickly and pointedly handled in a single paragraph, which states that "From as early as the Boston Massacre, when a Negro sailor, Crispus Attucks, joined a Boston mob of white rebels in its attack on the British soliders, until the British surrender at Yorktown in the presence of Negro troops, the question of the black man's destiny was linked with that of the nation.'

The next section, "The Peculiar Institution," presents a lengthy narrative of slavery encompassing working conditions, family life, slave laws, the economics of slavery, and the black person's reaction to slavery. This last topic is the longest of the items listed. First there is a section, "Acquiescence," describing the testimony of a slave who "lived under slavery as best she could." But at the end she is quoted as remarking, "Lord, Lord, honey! It seems impossible that any of us ever lived to see the day of freedom, but thank God we did."

This is followed by "Agitation." Here, Frederick Douglass is used as the prototype. It is noted, however, that "Douglass was joined in his Abolitionist efforts by other blacks, including William Wells Brown, Henry Highland Garnet, Sojourner Truth, and Harriet Tubman." Finally, the slave rebellions of not only the commonly mentioned Prosser, Denmark, and Turner, but also that of Cato, who led the earliest of these revolts, are described.

The next major topic in this chapter deals with "The Debate Over Slavery." The colonization movement is given lengthy treatment. Abolitionism, however, is disappointingly handled here. The authors fail to deal with a number of important facets of the movement. As it is, attention is pretty much focused on Garrison and Lucretia Mott, the leading white abolitionists.

There is a discussion of "The Southern Defense of Slavery," using the thoughts of George Fitzhugh and W. J. Cash's "The Mind of the South." This is heavy stuff for the average student, but given good classroom discussion it can prove illuminating indeed.

"The Free Negro" is the next major topic in the chapter. It begins with an excellent summary of the background of free Afro-Americans.

> The history of free Negroes in this nation goes back to the first blacks imported into Jamestown in 1619. These Negroes served for a period as indentured servants and were then freed. Later, slaves were allowed to buy their freedom with the money they accumulated by working extra hours; still others were freed because their masters disapproved of slavery and let their slaves go to regain their own self-respect. In the North, slaves were gradually freed by law after 1780. Although many Negroes were free (more than 434,000 in 1850), almost all of them were treated as second-class citizens. Their status as citizens in both the North and the South fluctuated, as it has continued to fluctuate to the present.

First describing "Quasi-Freedom in the South," the authors begin with the comment that "The existence of free Negroes in the South was a constant challenge to those who argued that Negroes were inherently unfit to live free in society and that their natural role was that of slave or servant." They go on to show the severe limitation imposed on such "free" blacks.

In "North of Slavery," a remarkable quotation from de Tocqueville is used to set the tone of this discussion:

> I see that in a certain portion of the territory of the United States at the present day (1830s), the legal barrier which separated the two races is tending to fall away, but not that which exists in manners of the country. Slavery recedes, but the prejudice to which it has given birth remains stationary. Whosoever has inhabited the United States must have perceived that in those parts of the Union in which the Negroes are no longer slaves, they have in nowise drawn nearer to the whites. On the contrary, the prejudice of the race appears to be stronger in the States which have abolished slavery than in those where it still exists, and nowhere is it so intolerant as in those States where servitude has never been known.

Reinforced by the text's observation that "In the middle of the 19th century, no northern or western state allowed blacks economic, social, or political rights equal to those of whites," the legacy of northern and western de-facto racial prejudice today can make for a great history lesson.

The chapter moves on to a discussion of "Successful Free Negroes." This is done

with a paragraph on each of three people—Phillis Wheatley, Paul Cuffe, and "Perhaps the most famous Negro of this period . . . Benjamin Banneker." If this text seems short on individual black personalities and heroes, it is long on in-depth treatment of issues and events, more important in a text of this particular design.

In closing the chapter, a section entitled "A Bitter Heritage" seeks to gain some understanding of the culture and the behavior of 20th-century blacks by looking at some contemporary materials. Thus, the Moynihan Report, "The product of a recent effort to gain such understanding" is discussed, pro and con, in several paragraphs. A second passage presented in the text is by Stanley M. Elkins, a historian whose book, "Slavery," suggests that slavery had long-lasting detrimental effects on the American Negro, but from a different viewpoint. In conclusion, the text observes that

> The theories of Moynihan and Elkins, like all other theories concerning the problems of blacks in the United States, arouse much controversy among blacks and whites alike. Because so many historical and psychological factors are involved, no single explanation can completely answer the questions of why blacks have not found full acceptance in American society and why their lives have followed certain patterns. Nevertheless, the thoughts of Daniel Moynihan, Stanley Elkins, and other historians and sociologists suggest new approaches to old problems and point up the difficulties faced by Negroes in this country.

Since we have given so much attention and detail to the first of the two chapters in the text dealing exclusively with the black American, we will only briefly comment on the second of these chapters, "The Black Experience: The Negro Struggle for Acceptance." The "Main Themes and Concepts" in this chapter are Reconstruction, segregation, racism, and black nationalism. Again, the introductory note asks the students to relate the past history which will be offered with present issues. "These concepts are significant to the Negroes' continuing struggle for freedom, equality, and justice in the United States. As you read this chapter, decide for yourself if society's attitudes and actions regarding these themes have changed appreciably during the past century."

Consistent with the mature and positive approach of the text's design, the presentation on Reconstruction not only reflects the latest revisionist scholarship, as do just about all current texts, but it goes beyond that to give students the opportunity to note themselves the varying interpretations of Reconstruction. Thus, there is considerable treatment of both "The Traditional View" and "The Revisionist View."

This is followed by a comprehensive treatment of "From Reconstruction to Jim Crow," which covers in vast detail the Populist Party and the blacks in the South; the legalization of segregation through the years, climaxed by *Plessy v. Ferguson*; and the reactions to segregation as exemplified in the conflicting views of Booker T. Washington and W. E. B. DuBois. The next section, "In Pursuit of Equality," covers in great detail, again, and at length, the formation of the NAACP, the great migration of blacks from the South to the North during and after World War I, the heroic role of blacks in that war on the front in Europe, and the racial violence which plagued the cities in the "red summer" of 1919. The Chicago race riot is described in a separate passage; the movement of Marcus Garvey is given considerable space. The Harlem Renaissance and its important figures are described. The impact of the 1929 depression is an unusually comprehensive presentation, tracing the religious response (including the sect of Father Divine—so often overlooked), and the

political response in terms of the relationship of the New Deal with the blacks in the country. No text surveyed in our study gives as much attention to these important matters. While it is commonplace to note how much blacks benefited from the New Deal, this text points out the other side of the picture of which, we suspect, many teachers might not have been aware.

> But not all New Deal activities helped Negroes. In an effort to prevent overproduction of certain surplus crops, the Agricultural Adjustment Administration gave cash payments to farmers who plowed these crops under. Black sharecroppers and tenant farmers in the South often saw their landlords pocket checks meant for them. When the AAA changed its rules in an attempt to insure that tenants would receive their payments, many blacks were thrown off the land by landlords who then collected the benefits themselves. Thousands of southern Negroes were thus forced to migrate north in search of jobs on federal work projects.
>
> Legislation such as minimum-wage laws and the Social Security Act did not help the majority of Negroes. Those who worked in factories were covered by these laws, but the millions who worked at agricultural or domestic jobs were not. Legislation aiding unions also provided only limited assistance, since most unions excluded blacks from membership. . .

In concluding the chapter, "In Summary," the text makes a comment which reflects its handling of the black American struggle for equality in subsequent chapters just by the way it makes its point here:

> In the First Reconstruction, black Americans gained freedom and citizenship only to suffer a horrifying relapse into racism and segregation. The Second Reconstruction of the 1950s and 1960s would test whether the nation's commitment to freedom and equality would overcome the laws, attitudes, and customs which had relegated black Americans to second-class citizenship.

The last major discussion of the black American appears in the final chapter, "Toward the Future: Challenges of the 1960s and 1970s," in a section called "The Challenge of Equality." This begins with the black revolution, and includes three pages consisting of 13 graphs and charts on "the black in contemporary society."

The civil disturbances of the 1960s are discussed thoroughly, as are the programs and philosophy of black power. There is almost as much material on Malcolm X as there is on Martin Luther King Jr. But there is no mention of the Black Panthers of any of the "extremist" black leaders. This seems to be the pattern among all the texts, but we nevertheless expected some treatment of this subject in a text of this kind.

In the last paragraphs, the question of integration or separation is pursued at some length. The Kerner Report is discussed in detail, as is the famous 1969 *Newsweek* poll on black Americans.

The concluding paragraph contains value judgments rather than facts—value judgments which are as important for our students to consider as any "fact."

> The challenge to all Americans in the 1970s is to see that those blacks who favor peaceful change do not become so frustrated by lack of progress that they join the smaller percentage of angry blacks who favor the arming of Negroes and the eventual establishment of a separate black nation within the United States. Equality for blacks and for the other visible minorities . . . cannot be deferred, if the United States is to survive as a peaceful, open society.

Bearing in mind that this is a special kind of textbook aimed to "cover" American history through themes and issues and that it is aimed at a highly motivated and fairly high-reading-level group of students, it is easy to say that it represents what is best among American-history texts. The handling of the black experience in American history reflects the latest scholarship and the most positive attitudes about that experience. There are dozens of excellent and appropriate illustrations accompanying the textual material. (As a matter of fact, the graphics of most current texts are nothing less than superb. This text is no exception.) We should also point out that the review questions, exercises, and projects in connection with the topics dealing with black Americans are plentiful and engaging.

Adventures in American History

junior-senior-high school
Jay Glanzrock
Silver Burdett
Morristown, N.J.
1971

This text has been written for the "slow learner." The approach and organization follows the pattern of most texts dealing with learning-disability problems. This means very short chapters, so that the students can complete a topic almost daily. The teacher's manual indicates that while one of the essential goals of this text is "help give students the satisfaction of succeeding with daily assignments while improving skills," it also states that "At the same time (the text) sets forth basic instruction in the essential content of American history." We therefore evaluate this text in terms of how much black-American history is included as part of the "essential content of American history," keeping in mind that the methodology of the material is not comparable to many of the other texts included in our survey.

Jay Glanzrock, who is credited as author, is identified only as a former teacher of social studies and English in the New York City school system. Naomi Glanzrock is credited as having prepared the chapter-review materials and is identified as a former teacher of English and remedial reading in the New York City school system. Since history is not the basic background or competency of the authors and the "chapter-review materials" is considered equally as important as the textual material (according to the teacher's manual, "In general, lessons may be approached through either the text or the chapter-review materials"), the very inclusion of this text in our survey is justified primarily because it may be the only American history which "slow-learners" get in their secondary-school career, and surely the number of students so characterized is substantial both in urban and in suburban schools.

The first two chapters, dealing with Columbus' voyages and the Spanish conquests, nowhere mention black participation. There is more opportunity to have done this here than in the third chapter describing England, France, and Holland in the New World, but there is no reference to blacks in the entire presentation on the explora-

tion period. The text manages not to introduce the black American as it moves on to the settlement of "The Thirteen English Colonies," even in the section on the Virginia Colony and Jamestown. Coming to the next chapter on "Life in the Colonies," the last paragraph in part two of the chapter is on "Negroes in the Colonies," which points out that "In 1619, one year before the Pilgrims reached Plymouth, 20 Africans arrived at Jamestown in a Dutch ship. They came to this country as servants, not as slaves." The remainder of the paragraph relates that increased numbers of blacks soon made up "nearly one fourth of all the people in the colonies."

In a text of this kind, one might very well expect to see Crispus Attucks' name in the Boston Massacre episode in the chapter on the American Revolution. Not only does the text fail to use this opportunity to include a black American reference, but there is no mention of black American participation anywhere in this entire chapter. We could not resist rechecking the year of copyright, which confirmed a 1971 date! It takes extraordinary insensitivity to publish an American-history textbook today without such a reference.

The next seven chapters, which end with "A midyear review; Chapters 1-14," make no reference to black Americans and nothing in the mid-year review exercise raises a single question in their connection. Thus, the students who spend the first half-year of an American-history course with this text have experienced discussion on the black American only in the single paragraph cited earlier. Although the two authors of the text appear to be English and reading teachers, the teacher's manual credits Joseph H. Dempsey, a member of the social-studies department at Morristown, N.J., High School, as having prepared the annotations in the teacher's edition of the text. Surely even one lonely social-studies person would have advised the publisher that a text published in 1971 with no black American material is bad history as well as bad business.

Turning to the second half of this text, the opening chapter on "The Steps to War," begins with a section on the origins of slavery. The material is a fine description of the earliest background of slavery and includes a compelling discussion of the slave trade. The passages on the slave's life are also well done. Part two of the chapter, on "Slavery in the United States," begins with a paragraph which ought indeed to have come much earlier in the text:

> The American Revolution, which made men fight for their independence, also made them think. Was it right to claim freedom for white men but not for Negroes? A Negro by the name of Crispus Attucks had been killed by the British in the Boston Massacre. Negroes had fought in the Battle of Bunker Hill. One of them, Salem Poor, had come out of that battle a hero. Altogether, 5,000 Negroes fought for the colonies during the Revolution.

Why the authors did not integrate this passage into the material in the chapter on the American Revolution is hard for us to understand. On this page is the first illustration showing a black man. It shows "Negroes on their way to a slave market. They are in chains, so they can't escape."

This is followed by a paragraph on the end of slavery in the North:

> After the Revolution, slavery slowly came to an end in the North. One state after another wrote laws against it, and by 1819 almost all Northern Negroes were free.

Some comment should have been included to point out that the life of the so-called free blacks did not have the quality implied by the text's summary statement.

The arguments over slavery make up the content of the next section in the chapter. In the passage on "The South's Argument," the text makes the flat statement that "Southerners didn't say that slavery was right. They only said it was necessary." Only the economic argument is presented. Even for the "slower" student, some reference to the South's moral justification should have been made in order to give proper dimension to the issue.

A passage on the antislavery movement deals with the abolitionists and Garrison. There is no mention of Frederick Douglass or black abolitionists in the entire discussion of eight paragraphs. The next passage discusses the Underground Railroad and Harriet Tubman—the way that texts of the past handled the subject.

A photograph of the "Members of the 107th United States Colored Infantry at Fort Corcoran, Va., near Washington, D.C." is the only reference to the black American in the chapter on the Civil War.

Frederick Douglass is introduced in the text for the first time in the chapter on Reconstruction in a section on "The Life of the Negroes" after the Civil War.

> Frederick Douglass, a slave who had run away and become a newspaper writer, gave this report: . . .

This is the only identification given the student reader of the leading black American of the period. And he is the second black American mentioned by name in the text. In this same section, the concluding paragraph relates that

> A Negro leader named Booker T. Washington had this to say about it (The Freedmen's Bureau): . . ."

And that is how the third black American is identified. Nothing more than that.

The second part of this chapter deals with the Reconstruction governments of the South. The text material is dominated by a half-page engraving of the South Carolina House of Representatives in 1876. While the caption states that "Negroes were helping to run the state government," the scene gives the impression that it is dominated by blacks; the few white officeholders are in the background. If anything, this engraving conveys the notion that blacks were running things. The narrative material is simple and unrevealing. However, part of it is misleading and hardly reflective of the current scholarship.

> There was one big trouble with these new governments. The Negroes in the South had never been educated and didn't know much about writing laws. So the Republicans told them who and what to vote for. Many of these Republicans came from the North. Their main idea was not to give the Southern states good government, but to make as much money as they could . . .

This one-dimensional view of the blacks and the Northerners is the old "scholarship" at its devious worst. Even a text geared for the "slow learners" could balance such a presentation by indicating that many of the blacks who were elected to the legislatures were in fact highly educated and that many of the Northerners came to the South to assist and not to exploit.

The remainder of the chapter discusses the rights of the blacks and their loss of their rights after 1877. It must be noted that the last two paragraphs conclude the chapter on a note of accuracy and with commendable value judgment:

> Slavery was gone, but most white people in the South were not willing to treat the Negroes as equals. Negroes were not allowed to eat in the same restaurants white people ate in, or to ride in the same railroad cars white people rode in, or even to attend the same schools.
>
> For 100 years after the Civil War there was always the threat of violence facing the Negroes. They were beaten and some were killed for "stepping out of line"—challenging the power of the white man. Most Negroes continued to live the same kind of life as their fathers had, under slavery.

Describing "The Last Frontier" in the next chapter, the authors do not take the opportunity to mention the black cowboys in a section dealing with cowboys on the plains. Somehow, this strikes us as an obvious subject for any of the texts but certainly one for a text of this kind which seeks out high-interest topics.

In the next chapter, on "The Newcomers—Immigrants in America," no effort is made to include any measure of discussion of the black Americans as a special kind of immigrant group as, again, is done in most texts. Not surprisingly, the chapter after this, on machines and people, has no mention of black Americans.

The text then moves through to the last chapter, after covering World Wars I and II, the 1920s, the New Deal, the Vietnam War, without a single reference to black Americans until that last chapter in part two, "Civil Rights." The chapter itself is titled, "The United States Today," and the opening paragraph states that "This chapter covers three main subjects—Presidents, problems, and achievements." Part two deals with problems—black Americans—under the title of "Civil Rights." These four pages are the longest single piece on the blacks in the text, almost equaled by the only other long section which was on slavery. On the whole, the presentation is fairly complete and accurate.

What is one to say about an American-history textbook in 1971 which has a single reference to Frederick Douglass as a newspaper writer and Booker T. Washington as "a Negro leader" in the entire text? A text which fails to have a reference to black Americans individually or collectively in more than 90 percent of its pages? We all deserve something better than this if we want to know our American history. Nor is it any excuse to say that a textbook for the "slow learner" cannot be as inclusive as other texts. If anything, such texts as these should be more inclusive.

That it can and is being done is evident from reading other texts in our study. We do not recommend this text for consideration in any American-history classroom.

The Impact of Our Past
A History of the United States

junior-high-school text

Bernard A. Weisberger
American Heritage Publishing Co.
Webster Division,
McGraw-Hill Book Co.
New York City
1972

The author of this text, Bernard A. Weisberger, is an associate editor of *American Heritage* and has taught at a number of major universities, including Chicago, Rochester, Columbia, and Stanford. The five consultants listed for the text are school social-studies people, except for Prof. John W. Blassingame, who is at Yale University.

Like a good many of the texts published in the past year or two, the approach of this text is heavily oriented toward inquiry learning. Thus, the features and exercises are quite as important and almost as ample as the narrative itself. There is, of course, a tremendous emphasis on visual materials. "Pictures As Historical Evidence" is a major feature of the text. Not unexpectedly, in the light of the splendid pictorial design of American Heritage publications, this text must surely rank among the most beautifully produced texts now available.

The Introduction, "Is America in Crisis?," raises the issue of race relations first as among the critical issues facing America in the decade of the '70s. It is pointed out in this opening section that

> Neither white nor Negro Americans have been willing to face, or even to admit, the truth about race relations in the United States. But the truth must be faced—now, while there is still time. It is never too soon for a nation to save itself; it can be too late. For a hundred years, white Americans have clung stubbornly to the false dream that if everyone would just sit still—if "agitators" would just stop agitating—time alone would solve the problem of race. It hasn't, and it never will. For time, as Martin Luther King Jr., points out, is neither good nor bad; it is neutral. What matters is how time is used. Time has been used badly in the United States—so badly that not much of it remains before race hatred completely poisons the air we breathe...

A text which is willing to begin with this kind of direct confrontation of the racial issue in the American present should deal with the historical content of that issue. At least in the early periods of American history, this text does an outstanding job. But it seems to lose heart once past the Civil War, when its material becomes comparatively thinner and weaker.

Unit I, "Peopling the Americas," reflects a theme prevalent among the new texts; that is, the emphasis is on people as the crucial factor in America's story. "American history is the story of the coming together of many different peoples—sometimes in harmony and sometimes in bloodshed." The unit itself is preceded by a feature

on differing viewpoints on American civilization. One of the pieces is an excerpt from an article written by a black newspaper editor, Chuck Stone, which condemns the treatment of black Americans in American-history courses and textbooks. This is a provocative way to begin a history course indeed.

Dealing first with "Early Indian Societies in the Americas," the unit moves on to "The Coming of the Europeans." The settlement of the blacks, under the title "Slavery Comes to the Americas," is the third of the four chapters in the unit. Facing a full-page etching with the caption, "An African is branded after being selected as a slave for the New World," the material represents what is perhaps the most dramatic example of the change which has taken place in the textbook treatment of the black American since the previous edition of this study.

> There are some white Americans who proudly trace their ancestors back to Englishmen who helped found Jamestown. There are also black men and women of today who could claim that honor, if records had been kept of all the children of 20 "negars" dropped off at Jamestown by a Dutch ship in 1619. That was only 12 years after Virginia was founded. Those 20 black men were the pioneers among Americans of African descent. Today they number more than 20 million.
>
> The part that black men and women have played in the making of America is often forgotten. That is largely because they spent most of their first three centuries in the New World in slavery . . .
>
> They did not get into the history books. Yet their work helped to clear the land and grow the crops which were traded for the wealth to build cities . . . Thus the slave you see being branded [referring to the etching facing this narrative copy] is a founding father, too.

The next several pages deal with the African heritage, under the topics of the economy, government, and art of West Africa. Stunning is the only word to describe the visual materials here. The material goes on to describe extensively the slave trade, the middle passage to the New World, slavery in the Americas, the revolt in Haiti, and slavery in Britain's North American colonies.

The next chapter, on "Colonial America," treats the black man only in the section on the South and the plantation economy. A splendid presentation of domestic slavery is given here. The concluding passage contains some impressive value judgments in summarizing the peculiar institution of slavery.

> One important thing to remember about slavery is that it was a long and brutal episode in our history. It was a terrible system, basically, but many kinds of slaves, from the most oppressed field hand to the talented cabinetmakers, were able to earn money and buy their freedom. There were also many different masters. There were brutes who beat their slaves, but there were also kind men like George Washington who met their responsibilities well and freed their slaves. White and black Southerners built their section together, and the lives of slaves and masters were mingled so that "black" and "white" Southern history cannot be separated.

But it is disappointing that no mention is made of free blacks in the other sections of the colonies. In the attempt to present a "balanced" statement, it is perhaps overstating the matter to suggest that because exceptional slaves could buy their freedom, the system was not totally destructive to human rights and dignity.

A marginal note (which is a kind of "feature" in this text) on Crispus Attucks appears at the beginning of the next chapter, which describes the Revolutionary War. Another marginal note in the chapter serves as caption to a detail from a John Trumbull painting.

A number of Negroes distinguished themselves in the fighting on Breed's Hill. The black man in this detail from a John Trumbull painting may be Salem Poor, who was commended by 14 officers for his bravery. Another Negro, Peter Salem, is often credited with killing Major Pitcairn.

While Phillis Wheatley is not mentioned in this text in its material dealing with these early years of the nation's history, somewhat surprisingly, Benjamin Banneker is given considerable attention in the chapter dealing with the first years of the republic.

From this point on, as a matter of fact, the content on the black American is quite thin until midway through the text, when the Reconstruction era is treated. James Beckwou h is mentioned in the chapter describing the discovery of the Far West, and there are several fleeting references to blacks in the material dealing with the frontier.

The abolitionist movement is briefly treated, although Frederick Douglass and David Walker are given prominent attention. The chapter on the Civil War contains adequate discussion of the black participation and contribution.

The "biggest" chapter on the black American in this text is "Reconstruction and the Negro After the Civil War." The presentation of the black Reconstructionists is both positive and authoritative. The section, "The Birth of Jim Crow," is excellent, and provides a solid background in this topic. Another section, "An Age of Violence," hits hard at the post-Civil-War violence against the blacks. "Segregation by Law," offers a comprehensive treatment of "legal" discrimination. Going on to a section, "The Search for New Answers," the text offers a superb treatment describing what black Americans did during those last years of the 19th century. The migration to the North, the Booker T. Washington-W.E.B. DuBois controversy, the emergence of the NAACP, are all detailed, coupled with much visual material. The chapter is followed by a feature, "Issues Past and Present." Here we have the writings of black authors (Douglass, Malcolm X, and Whitney Young) giving their differing views on the validity of integration as a goal for black Americans. This is followed by an inquiry exercise, "Using Statistics," which tells students about the share that white and black Americans have had of the benefits of our society.

As in so many of the texts, past and present, we must note with disappointment that very little reference is made to black Americans for the remaining part of the text until the next-to-last chapter, "An Age of Challenge and Change," in a section on minorities, appropriately subtitled, "The Struggle for an Equal Share." Here, the civil-rights revolution is traced, covering the peaceful and violent protests as well as the new political and economic power of the black Amer an.

On the whole, this very beautifully produced and written text does a competent job in its treatment of the black American. Some of its early passages are among the best reviewed in this study. But the second half of the text is so sparing in this area that potential users will have to weigh the strengths of the text against the "thinner" material toward the end. In a time of so many supplementary materials, it well may be decided that, as a text, it has so many assets, among which are the numerous excellent materials on blacks, that it would be an appropriate choice. The visual design, as well as the teaching strategies dictated by the text, are among those important strengths.

Exploring Our Nation's History

junior-senior high-school text
Sidney Schwartz
John R. O'Connor
Globe Book Co.
New York City
1971

This text is an attempt to combine a high-school interest level with a low-seventh-grade reading level, so that it can be used in the junior-high- and/or senior-high-school American-history class. It is promoted as an American-history program "that presents the standard course of study, but extends treatment" of "now" topics. The civil-rights struggle is listed as one of the subjects given such special treatment. This is a very traditional textbook in format, if not in content, since it does present its material in straight narrative form with the usual end-of-chapter questions. The coverage of black-American history is rather strong, in that a good deal of basic information about the issues in black-American history is included. What is lacking, however, is enough information about black Americans, particularly individuals. More importantly, our main disappointment is the very approach in presenting the material. It strikes us as too "segregated." This we will spell out as we move on to our review of the text.

Sidney Schwartz is chairman of a social-studies department in the New York City school system. John R. O'Connor is a principal in the same system.

The first black American reference comes early in this text in the introduction, which describes "The United States Today." In a section on "The American People," black Americans are included in a discussion of the many groups which settled in the colonies and which make up our present population.

Discussing the European settlement of the Americas by the Spanish and Portuguese in particular in the first chapter, a passage takes note that "The Indians, the first people to live in these lands, were treated as slaves." It is then pointed out that blacks from Africa were used to fill their places when it appeared that the Indians could not do the work or survive the diseases that the masters brought from Europe. This indication that the blacks were not the first slaves is important for students to know, since it takes some of the edge off the notion that blacks were born slaves. While a few sentences are given over to an explanation of the horrors of the slave trade here, the text comes back to the topic in greater detail at a later point.

The next chapter, on "The Settling of the Thirteen Colonies," includes an excellent treatment of the transition of blacks to a slave status.

At first Negroes were treated like indentured white servants and were given their freedom after several years . . . . Negroes were made into slaves because the white colonists considered them inferior. They looked different; they spoke languages and followed customs that seemed strange; and they did not take easily to life in the new land. These were good reasons, the

white colonists believed, to keep them as slaves for life. Next, laws were passed in Virginia and other colonies declaring that the children of slaves were to remain slaves. Thus a dark skin became the badge of slavery in America. Negro slaves gave the southern plantations a supply of cheap labor until the Civil War, 250 years later.

At the end of this chapter, in a discussion on "Undemocratic Features of Colonial Life," an excellent comment is made when the authors note that "The revival of slavery in America, long after it had begun to disappear in Europe, was the darkest blot on American society. It created many serious problems, some of which have not been compietely solved to this day.

The following chapter, on the American Revolution, has but one reference to the black American and this appears in the caption on, inevitably, the Boston Massacre. "The first victim of British bullets, shown lying on the ground, was a Negro named Crispus Attucks. He has been called 'the first casualty of the Revolution.' " We do think that in a text of this design this much attention to Attucks is appropriate. However, we should have thought more of the chapter if it had integrated something of the black American participation in the Revolution itself.

No reference to the black American appears in this text for almost 163 pages, in the chapter on the rise of sectionalism and in a section discussing the development of the plantation system in the South. It should be noted that this is a two-volume text and that we are referring now to Volume I, "The Developing Years, Through the Civil War." Two units, containing eight chapters, omit any significant reference (and even "insignificant" references are not made, such as the black participation in the War of 1812). It is true that much of the material that might have been integrated in at least some of these chapters is treated at a later point in other contexts. However, in a volume which professes to deal with "the developing years" in American history, we would expect to see greater acknowledgment of the black American's participation in that development.

A passage on "The Treatment of the Slaves" on the cotton plantation is well done, giving a rounded picture of the slave's treatment. It is, however, a secondary, narrative account and does not give the reader a sense of what slavery means and even feels like, which can in some measure be accompiished by the use of primary source materials. But this is a traditional text approach, and there is no doubt still a wide interest and market for this kind of presentation.

The following chapter deals with the Jacksonian era and even in the section dealing with the reform movements of the period, the abolitionists are only incidentally mentioned with the statement that "we shall learn more about the important part the abolitionists played in bringing on the Civil War and ending slavery." And this in spite of a previous observation that "Perhaps the most important reformers of all were the abolitionists." This lack of integration of material characterizes the text.

Chapter 17, "The Problem of Slavery," is where much of the black American participation in America's development is concentrated, or shall we say, segregated. In all fairness to the authors, we must comment at once that the quality of much of the material presented here is excellent.

The introductory note reflects the generally commendable treatment.

Slavery was evil. Now that it no longer exists, it is hard to believe that human beings were once considered private property, just like furniture or cattle. It is even harder to believe that such cruelty could exist when it did not really pay. Slaves had to be supported whether they could work or not. They were usually poor workers because they had nothing to gain by working hard. As we have seen, slavery kept the South from progressing as fast as the Northeast and West. Why then was this evil system introduced in the 13 colonies? Why did it die out in the northern states but become firmly established in the South?

The chapter goes on to deal with these questions. The first section gives a splendid narrative account of how slavery became established in America. Slavery in ancient times, the decline of slavery in Europe, slavery in Latin America, and, finally, slavery in the 13 colonies, all are discussed in greater length and detail than we have found in many texts. In the next section, which deals with the question, "Why Did the North and South Clash Over Slavery?" there is a passage, "Negro Achievements." Here, in two paragraphs, the text mentions for the first time black participation in the Revolutionary War. "A number of them won special honors for their courage in battle." And it is at this point that the important black Americans of the Colonial period are identified, *viz.*, Benjamin Banneker, Phillis Wheatley, and Gustavus Vassa. "Their achievements helped the antislavery movement by disproving the old belief that Negroes were an inferior race." We repeat our earlier observation that a passage like this might have more appropriately been integrated into the earlier chapters. The abolitionist movement is given a reasonably lengthy treatment at the end of this chapter. Pictures of "Three Negro abolitionists. From left to right: Frederick Douglass, Sojourner Truth, Harriet Tubman," accompany the discussion. Our only criticism here is the characterization or the use of "extreme abolitionists" and of the "extremism" of these abolitionists throughout the presentation. This is an emotionally charged term and could mislead students about the righteousness and morality of their cause. It might also be noted that the reference to Frederick Douglass in just one sentence, "The extreme abolitionists included Negroes like Frederick Douglass and Sojourner Truth," is the only identification or characterization of Douglass in the entire volume. It would seem that the student should get more of the leading black American of the period covered by this volume than this one reference.

In the chapter on "The Civil War and its Results," the one reference to the black American in the war itself is a photograph of the 4th U.S. Colored Infantry with a caption stating that "Negro troops played an important part in some of the hardest-fought battles of the Civil War."

The handling of the Reconstruction governments is excellent. It reflects the revisionist scholarship on the subject and conveys to the students some very positive feelings about the role of the black Americans in this fleeting episode of political participation. An engraving of the black Congressmen and Senators of the period accompanies this section. The caption observes that "The first colored Senator and Representatives were wealthy, well-educated men." The authors state that "The carpetbagger [an injudicious characterization] governments passed the most progressive laws the South had ever seen." This is detailed with specific accomplishments. The chapter concludes with a summary of the "after-effects" of Reconstruction. The first two such effects are "bad feeling between North and South" and "the solid South." The last of the consequences of Reconstruction is discussed in a passage, "The Negro Problem." This is a good summary of the second-class-

citizenship status which the black American held from the time of Reconstruction. "In a later section we shall learn about the steps taken in recent years to give Negro Americans the equal rights they were promised in the Fourteenth Amendment a century ago."

The second volume of this two-volume text is entitled "The Age of Greatness, Since the Civil War." Apart from a short statement on the emergence of the private black schools in the South after Reconstruction, in the chapter dealing with the Gilded Age politics and culture, there is no reference to the black American in this text until two-thirds of the textual material has passed.

In the 16th chapter, in a text with 19 chapters, the authors attempt to describe the black-American experience. Instead of discussing the black American's participation in World War I in the chapter on that war, or instead of referring to the Harlem Renaissance in a chapter dealing with the '20s, the text lumps the reference into a section of this chapter 16, "Effects of the First World War." While there is a chapter on the New Deal in this text, the black American experience in that period goes unmentioned there, but then is presented in this "segregated" chapter in a section, "The New Deal and the Negro." Likewise, "The Negro in World War II," "Truman's Policies," and other topics, are presented in this single, segregated chapter.

We do believe that for the student to go through almost two-thirds of the text before coming to the role of the black American as he does in here is an unsatisfactory approach. Nor can we accept the format as necessary in a text aimed at "slow learners."

The chapter goes on to include discussions of topics on the Supreme Court decisions of the 1950s; the "massive resistance" by Southern whites to those decisions; the nonviolent resistance by blacks, "such as parades, boycotts, 'Freedom Rides,' 'sit-ins,' and 'pray-ins;' the riots in the cities." All this is a great deal of material to pack into about four pages, and it is questionable whether the students can absorb it all—"slow" or other learners. Even from the point of view of pedagogy, we would think that "scattering" this material in the various topical chapters would have greater impact on the student reader. There is also a full page of photos of six "famous Negroes: . . . W. C. Handy, Marian Anderson, Jackie Robinson, Langston Hughes, Edward Brooke, and Thurgood Marshall . . ." In addition to this, the chapter includes a full-page feature on Mary McLeod Bethune and Martin Luther King Jr. The remainder of the chapter deals with other minority groups.

The last reference to black Americans in the text is in the last chapter, "Problems and Policies of the 1970s," in a long passage on race problems. Here, the book takes an unusual position for a text when it "puts down" President Nixon for failing to give greater support to civil-rights legislation.

> When the successful Voting Rights Act of 1965 was about to end, Nixon asked Congress to pass a weaker law . . . . The President also insisted on appointing a conservative white southern judge to the Supreme Court. He gave up only after the Se nate refused to approve two men he had nominated.

The passage goes on to detail a number of other positions of the President which did not serve the cause of civil rights.

While we cannot fault this text on its obvious intent to include a good measure of black-American history, we are nevertheless not very satisfied with the outcome of the effort. Too much of it is lumped into too few chapters. One need only glance at the 23 index entries on "Negroes" to conclude that the coverage is somewhat sparse and certainly concentrated in very limited areas.

In a communication to this writer, the publisher pointed out that he is not convinced that it is possible to do a very effective job of including black-American history in a "general" American-history text. His company does publish a black-American history text that does do the kind of job needed. We agree that more can be done in a specialized text, but the issue is really a matter of degree. Many of the texts covered in the present survey do indeed manage to include a great deal of black-American history in a text characterized as a "general history" of the U.S. And at least one reason for this is clear: there is enough black-American history woven into the fabric of the American experience to make this both a necessary and achievable goal.

We wish to emphasize that the accuracy and the positive tone of much of what this text does offer in the area of black-American history is impressive and sometimes even compelling. We do not wish to leave the impression that we would not recommend it at all for classes which are seeking a reasonable representation of black-American history within a general-history course. However, this text falls a good deal short of what other texts, even those designed for the "slow learner," have realized in this particular area.

Building the United States

senior-high-school text

Jerome R. Reich
Arvarh E. Strickland
Edward L. Biller
Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc.
New York City
1971

This text is aimed at senior-high-school students "with reading and learning problems . . . Simple sentence structures, brief paragraphs, and the seventh-grade reading level present the fundamentals of American history in a way both simple enough to allow reading success and adult enough to encourage it. "The approach of the text is the orthodox, "SQ3R method (Survey, Question, Read, Recite, Review)," and not, of course, the inquiry or discovery approach, which characterizes a number of the new texts included in our survey.

Jerome R. Reich is now professor of history at Chicago State College, South, but he has had 20 years of experience teaching history and social studies in elementary

and secondary classrooms in the Chicago public-school system, most of it in the inner-city schools. Arvarh E. Strickland has taught these subjects in secondary schools in Mississippi and at Tuskegee Institute in Alabama. He is now professor of history at the University of Missouri. Edward L. Biller has taught in the city school system of Baltimore and he is now supervisor of social studies there.

In its attempt to serve an important segment of the inner-city school students, this text does indeed provide a positive, well-balanced treatment of the black role in American history.

It is, however, disappointing to note that the text moves along for some 14 chapters and 100 pages before the black person is introduced at all. Thus does the text cover the exploration period, the establishment of the English colonies, and life in the colonies, all without reference to blacks. Their introduction comes in the second chapter of unit 4, "The People Who Settled the Colonies," in a chapter entitled "Slavery in the Colonies." It is questionable whether this should be the initial introduction and whether it should be done separately, instead of in a more integrated approach.

In any case, the presentation itself, which describes the arrival of the first Africans in America as indentured servants and their transformation by law into slaves, is excellent. There is a much-needed passage relating how these blacks came from "strong black nations in Africa." It goes on to describe the many skills of the people in Africa. The chapter gives a compelling description of the Middle Passage. "Everything about slavery was terrible, but the Middle Passage was perhaps the worst part."

The next chapter, "Slave Life," makes the point that although all slaves were not treated alike, they were considered to be the property of their masters. It also emphasizes that "Slaves were unhappy and wanted to win their freedom." There is a comparison of the difference between slavery in the English and Spanish colonies, which is too often neglected in the texts. "The main difference was that a slave in the Spanish colonies had a better chance to win his freedom."

Each chapter has a "Summing Up" paragraph, and it might be helpful to quote in full the "Summing Up" of this early chapter by way of showing the simple but direct language which characterizes the text's treatment of black history.

> Slaves had no freedom and were forced to do what their masters wanted. Harsh laws controlled the lives of slaves. Although not all slaves were treated alike, their lives were full of hardships. Many slaves fought against this life and tried to gain their freedom. A few slaves were able to buy their freedom. In the next chapter, which begins Unit 5, you will read about the life of other Americans during the colonial period.

This contrast with "the life of other Americans during the colonial period" is probably a good way to point up the differences which account for so much of the contemporary racial issues and problems.

The next reference to the blacks comes eight chapters later, in "The Start of the Revolutionary War." There is, however, in the previous chapter dealing with the background of the Revolution, an engraving showing angry colonists burning British tax stamps, in which one of the dominant figures is an elderly black man. This is sometimes a more effective way of getting students to associate blacks with the American experience than is a separate chapter. The chapter on the Revolution

carries a half-page feature on the Boston Massacre which, inevitably, emphasizes Crispus Attucks. Particularly in a text of this nature, this probably is effective, if not completely desirable from the point of view of historical value. We no longer criticize a text if it emphasizes Attucks, as we have in the past editions of our study.

In the chapter dealing with the Revolutionary War itself, the opening paragraph describes the black Americans who fought in the War. "When the Revolutionary War broke out, no group was more eager to serve in the American army than black Americans. They fought bravely at the battles of Lexington, Concord, and Bunker Hill . . . about 5,000 black soldiers—both free and slave—fought side by side with white troops . . ."

It is disappointing that in dealing with the War of 1812 no mention is made of the of the blacks' contribution to that victory.

Blacks are not mentioned for the next 10 chapters after the Revolutionary War, when they are discussed in the chapter on the South during the years between 1800 and 1850. In addition to the usual discussion of the expansion of slavery and the Southern argument defending it, there is a good passage on "Free Black People in the South." Their presence was viewed as a threat to "Slave owners (who) felt that these free men were a danger to slavery." Thus, the authors explain the creation of the Black Codes, although the term is not defined. "For this reason, many laws were passed in the South to control free black people." The burdens and difficulties of free blacks are then described.

In unit 11, "American Life From 1800 to 1860," two of the four chapters deal with (1) Black Americans in the North and (2) Black Americans in the South. Again, there may be some question of whether it is desirable to have separate chapters rather than integrate the subject in the first three chapters of the unit, which deal with "Everyday American Life," "Changes in American Thought," and "Americans Work for a Better Nation." The chapter dealing with reform, "Americans Work for a Better Nation," is mostly devoted to the Abolitionist movement, but exclusively the white abolitionists. It is in the next, "segregated," chapter on the black Americans in the North, where the role of the blacks in the drive for freedom is discussed in exclusive terms. And a splendid presentation it is. In a passage, "Black Americans Formed Groups to Fight for Freedom," it is pointed out that "Even before 1800, free black people of the Northeast formed benefit societies, or self-help groups." Beyond that, "Black-abolitionist groups were formed long before any white abolitionist groups were started. These black abolitionist groups worked hard against slavery, but they were not very successful. However, black abolitionists had a strong influence on William Lloyd Garrison, a famous white abolitionist, who put out the newspaper *The Liberator.*" Now, it does seem that this kind of material would have been more impressive if it came before the discussion of the white-abolitionist movement.

The chapter goes on to describe and name the "Black speakers (who) helped the Abolition Movement." Frederick Douglass gets a full paragraph to himself, while Sojourner Truth is given a half-page feature sketch. Pictures of both figures are included with the text material. The chapter on the Northern free blacks discusses the many problems which faced these "free" persons. It also makes a point of some of the real achievements made by some of them in spite of the obstacles. The "summing up" passage in this chapter states that

Free black Americans in the North had many problems. But they fought against unfair treatment and worked to gain equal rights. Free black Americans in the North also fought to end slavery. In the next chapter, you will learn what slaves were doing to help themselves.

The theme or main idea of the next chapter, which deals with Black Americans in the South, is that "Black people never accepted slavery. They tried to gain their freedom in many different ways." Beginning with a long piece on Harriet Tubman, the two-page chapter offers a series of paragraphs describing the major slave rebellions of Gabriel Prosser, Denmark Vesey, and Nat Turner. The Underground Railroad is the other topic covered.

After the unit covering the westward movement to the Pacific Coast, the Mexican War, and the United States in the 1850s, blacks return to the text in the following unit, which treats the events leading to the Civil War and fighting the war itself. The first chapter in the unit deals with the slavery issue. It includes a feature on Anthony Burne, the fugitive slave. The last chapter of the unit, "Fighting the War," offers a passage, "Black Soldiers and Sailors Fought in the War," which offers some general statements about black participation and contribution. "Four black sailors won the Congressional Medal of Honor in the Civil War. Black soldiers also won medals and showed their bravery in battle."This section is accompanied by a photograph of black Union soldiers from the 4th United States Colored Infantry. The caption notes that "Many black soldiers fought on the Union side," reinforcing the statement in the text that "Over 180,000 black soldiers served in the Union army. And about one-fourth of all Union sailors were black."

The later chapter on Reconstruction gives a very positive, if again simple, discussion on this important topic.

Black Leaders Served in the New Southern State Governments

The black citizens of the South also played an important part in the new Southern governments. Black men were elected to the state legislatures and held important offices in the state governments. The state of Mississippi elected two black men, Hiram Revels and Blanche K. Bruce, to the United States Senate. Fifteen other black men served in the House of Representatives during the Reconstruction period. . . . Most of the black leaders worked hard to improve the condition of their own people as well as the whole South.

The text goes on to state that the new state constitutions improved the old constitutions in several ways, including widening the franchise, rebuilding destroyed communities, farms, and railroads. "But most important of all, these new constitutions set up free public schools for the first time in most Southern states." This important development should always be related to students. This text does also add the fact that ". . . except for New Orleans, all the public schools in the South were segregated." The chapter includes numerous pictures and a feature dealing with Robert Elliot, a black statesman often overlooked.

The following chapter on the New South describes the beginning of segregation and *Plessy v. Ferguson*. The classic photograph of a class at Tuskegee is included in the chapter. The caption notes that "Separate schools for white and black students were set up in the South."

"America Becomes an Industrial Nation" is the next unit, and it contains some excellent pieces. The first chapter, "Settling the Frontier," offers a portrait of Nat

Love, one of the early black cowboys. A later chapter in this unit, "The Growth of American Industries," contains a feature on Jan E. Matzeliger, the inventor who made the mass shoe industry possible. It is extraordinarily unusual for the texts even to mention the existence of black inventors!

In the unit dealing with "Changes in American Life After 1865," the chapter on "Problems of American Workers," discussing the new immigrants from Europe, also devotes half of the material to the problems faced by black workers in the North and South. A particular point is made about the antiblack posture of most of the labor unions. It is here that Booker T. Washington's philosophy is introduced. After discussing that philosophy, the authors conclude that

> Although Washington worked against segregation and tried to help form a class of black businessmen, many black Americans disagreed with his ideas. They felt that black people must struggle to gain equal rights as well as to improve their lives. Most white Americans, however, favored Washington's ideas . . . .

The material dealing with blacks in this text becomes increasingly integrated in the modern period. Thus, in a chapter covering the period from 1890 to 1920, entitled "Progressives Work for Better Government," a number of topics related to black Americans appear. Too rarely discussed as it is here, is the relationship between the Populist Party and the blacks in the early 1890s and the alienation which took place between black and white farmers in the South, which at the beginning was a relationship of cooperation toward improving their condition.

It also is pointed out in this chapter that black Americans were trying to help themselves. The establishment of the Afro-American Council in 1890 and the Niagara Movement (which resulted in the NAACP by 1909), and the organization of the National Urban League in 1911, are described. The emergence of W. E. B. DuBois as an important black leader is discussed here.

There is no further mention of black Americans through units and chapters covering Theodore Roosevelt's administration, Taft, Wilson and the New Freedom, or the United States and the World, until the chapter on "Fighting World War One," which includes a feature on Noble Sissle, who "was the drum major of the 369th Regiment Band. This regiment was the first black combat unit to be sent to Europe." The bulk of the feature, however, deals with Sissle, whose band "in 1952 played at President Eisenhower's Inaugural Ball." It is questionable whether the reference to the role of blacks in World War I should have been overshadowed, if not dwarfed, by a feature on a musician.

The text, however, comes back to World War I and black Americans in the chapter dealing with American Problems in the 1920s. In a section discussing the movement of black Americans to the North after that war, it is stated that "the black soldiers who returned found that they still did not have equal rights with white citizens." Thus, movement to the North was motivated by the desire for a better life than the South offered. However, once the war was over and jobs became scarce, blacks found themselves left out. The program of Marcus Garvey's Universal Negro Improvement Association is described.

There are a good many discussions of black personalities and issues throughout the remainder of the text as it moves into the modern period. In one of the last

chapters, "The Black Power Movement," discussion is low-keyed, and no mention is made of the Black Panthers or any of the more militant black leaders of the late '60s except Malcolm X. In view of the amount of attention given to these groups and individuals in the mass media, it can be assumed that the students are sufficiently aware of them. Yet it might be a good idea to offer students the opportunity to discuss such matters in the classroom within the context of their school materials.

In summary, this text certainly does a very adequate and accurate job of including the black American in the story of America. Though there are areas which leave something to be desired, it is nevertheless a good example of what an orthodox approach to history for a particular student readership can achieve.

One Nation Indivisible

junior-high-school text

Landis R. Heller Jr.
Norris W. Potter
Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co.
Columbus, Ohio
1971

This text was one of the very few which we reviewed in our previous study which was found to be "grossly inadequate in content and seriously lacking in substance" in terms of its treatment of blacks in U.S. history. We further observed that "In the case of several texts which have been surveyed, there was the temptation to be equivocal about the evaluation of their usefulness. There is no temptation here to hedge: It can be stated unequivocally that this text will not do."

Having been advised by the publisher that "In the past two years, we have extensively revised our junior-high American-history textbook, 'One Nation Indivisible,'" we were anxious to review the new, 1971, second edition and perhaps come up with a good example of the changes and improvement which could be made between editions. Certainly, the present edition of what was an unsatisfactory text can now be characterized as satisfactory if not exemplary. There remain a number of disappointing elements in the revision of the treatment of black-American history.

What strikes us as particularly disappointing is the extensive use of "teacher annotations" as a substitute for direct information in the student edition of the text. While the authors suggest that these annotations are for enrichment purposes, the fact is that many of the items are basic information. Thus, such figures as Phillis Wheatley, Crispus Attucks, free blacks, black cowboys, and black inventors do not appear in the text. It remains for the teacher at his or her option to mention these matters. We shall note at a later point how the device of "teacher annotations" is used to fill in material about black Americans wholly missing in chapters which actually have no references to black Americans.

On the other hand, there is, in fact, a considerable amount of material on black Americans in the text. For example, in the opening chapter on discovery and exploration in the New World, reference to black American participation appears in three places. Describing Columbus' voyage, it is pointed out that "At least one of the crew, Pedro Alonso Nino, was a Negro." In the caption of a drawing of Balboa it is noted that sharing Balboa's discovery "was his crew, which included 30 Negroes." The chapter concludes with a feature on Estevanico.

> Almost every explorer who sailed for the New World brought Negroes as explorers, servants, or slaves. The most famous of these was Estevanico, a Negro slave from Morocco . . . .

The first edition of this text (1966) made no mention of blacks in this chapter.

Another example of the improvement of the text is the treatment of the Reconstruction governments. We commented, in connection with that first edition, that "The treatment of the Reconstruction governments smacks of the traditional, rather than the revisionist viewpoint." That edition declared that the participation of blacks in the Reconstruction governments was a mistake "for all concerned." The present revised edition contains a section on "Negro Officeholders" which portrays a very positive picture of the role of the black Reconstructionists. A number of officials of that period are identified and their backgrounds and achievements are described. In conclusion, the authors write that "In all, they were men of ability who had a sincere interest in sound government." Another section, "Accomplishments of the New Governments," concedes that while

> It is true that graft, waste, extravagance, and incompetent officeholders could be found . . . more impressive than the faults are the positive contributions of these governments.

The passage then goes on to detail these accomplishments.

There is no question that both the quantity and the quality of black-American history in this text are much greater than that which appeared in its previous edition. Indeed, the teacher's annotated edition has a full discussion of the text's aim to achieve a high level of black-American history.

> Treated as an integral part of the running narrative is the role that Negroes have played in shaping our political, social, and economic development. Special contributions and achievements have been singled out for attention in photographs and boxed excerpts. The unit-end exercises contain many ideas for in-depth or collateral studies of particular aspects of Negro history. The annotations also contain certain information that will enrich the presentation and discussion of Negro history.
>
> Stress should be placed on developing an understanding of the Negro experience—the psychological and sociological effect of being black in a predominantly white culture.

These are commendable statements and aims and to some small degree it achieves them. Without meaning to make too much of the kind of elementary information left in the annotations to "enrich the presentation and discussion of Negro history," we do nevertheless think that it is one of the major weaknesses of the text's approach.

On the other hand, to the text's credit, there are very few chapters without references to the black American. Those chapters do contain, at the very least, the "teacher's annotation," so that there is the possibility of the student getting the information. For example, the chapter on the New Deal has no reference to its im-

pact on black Americans, but an annotation notes that "FDR appointed a group of outstanding Negroes to be 'racial advisors' to New Deal agencies. Robert Weaver and Mary McLeod Bethune were two leaders of this 'black cabinet.' " An earlier chapter on the social history of the nation in the late 19th century makes no mention of black Americans in a section describing theatrical entertainment, music, and organized sports. Yet, in connection with organized sports, at least, the teacher's annotation notes that "The first world-famous American Negro athlete was Jack Johnson, winner of the heavyweight boxing title in 1908."

In another chapter, dealing with America's industrial growth, in a section on inventions, it is only as an annotation that Jan Matzeliger (inventor of the shoe-lasting machine . . . "which revolutionized the shoe industry") and Lewis Latimer, who "was employed by Bell to make the patent drawings for the first telephone," appear. Likewise, the chapter describing the era of the Western range notes black American cowboys in the annotations. But while there is a 50-50 chance in some classrooms and no chance in others that students will get this "annotated" information, there is nevertheless a sufficiently large number of items in the body of the student edition to warrant our earlier conclusion that it is no longer an unacceptable text in terms of black-American history. We must, however, comment that it does not rate as highly as most of the new texts which appear in this study. Furthermore, in spite of its own statement that this text "offers many possibilities for creative teaching," it is, in our judgment, essentially a text "well-suited to the traditional method of teaching history—presenting the material through lectures and following the organization of the text without modification . . . ," as the text itself observes before suggesting the "innovative approach" possibilities.

The Promise of America

junior-high-school text

Alice Kaplan Gordon, Senior Author
Henry W. Bragdon, Adviser to Project
Science Research Associates
Chicago
1970

This is a text from a publisher new to the social-studies textbook field. It was "developed" for the publisher by Abt Associates in Cambridge, Mass., an educational company best known for the games it has produced for the school market. As a matter of fact, a whole series of games geared to this text is available. The theme of the text is expressed in a "to the student" passage:

This book examines the meaning of the promise of America as it has changed throughout history. It asks for whom the promise has been fulfilled and to whom denied. It asks you to decide what the promise should mean today and how it may be fulfilled.

At least one of the unique features of the text's design is the complete absence of the end-of-the-chapter questions and exercises. Thus, the text comes off as a truly narrative volume. A substantial part is primary source material. Frequently, opposing views of the same issue or events are presented. The some 400 illustrations in this text represent some of the most beautiful and compelling material we have seen in a school text. The text is divided into eight units, each dealing with a major issue during a particular period. There is, therefore, a considerable body of information about many topics which does not appear in this text, and black Americans are treated along the same lines. For example, while there is no reference to Benjamin Banneker or Phillis Wheatley, there are references to Medgar Evers and Rosa Parks. This is due to the particular emphasis of the topics handled by the text.

Each of the units was "developed" by a different team of authors, apparently staff members of Abt Associates engaged to work on the project. This gives the book a freshness which remains all the way through to the end.

The discovery and exploration period, surveyed prior to the first unit, is not given any important attention. Most junior-high-school students have had their fill of this part of American history in the fifth grade and at other points in their elementary schooling, so that the authors, in our judgment, were not only unique in this instance, they were wise. Unit I deals with "Colonists and Patriots," and, in a section describing the indenture system, it moves on to a discussion, "Slavery," which offers a highly readable and historical account of the arrival of the black Americans.

> Not every servant came to Virginia of his own free will. In 1619, a Dutch ship manned by pirates and thieves dropped anchor in Jamestown Harbor. The captain offered to trade part of his cargo for food and water. The cargo was human—African Negroes. The Dutch had probably stolen them from Spanish traders. The Spanish in turn had probably bought the Negroes from an African chieftain who had captured them in war. These African Negroes, and others who followed soon after, became indentured servants. They were freed when their term of service was up, and some even had indentured servants of their own . . . .

The discussion continues in this readable and informative way which impresses us as one of the best presentations of the topic we have encountered.

The next reference to blacks in this unit comes in the material on the American Revolution, in the caption of an engraving of the Boston Massacre. "Five Americans were killed. One was Crispus Attucks, a Negro member of the crowd. Some years earlier, Attucks had escaped slavery and became a sailor." This is a good way to handle a much mishandled subject in black-American history. It is low-keyed, as it should be.

At a later point in the unit, there is a long section, "Incomplete Revolution," which discusses "The most glaring failure of the Revolution . . . the continuation of slavery." In the course of the material, it is noted that "From the first battle of the Revolution at Lexington and Concord to the final victory at Yorktown, free Negroes and slaves fought the battle for independence." It was also observed that

> There were a few all-Negro companies. But the majority of Negro soldiers fought in integrated regiments. They won respect and recognition for their service. One German officer remarked,

"No regiment is to be seen in which there are no Negroes in abundance; and among them are able-bodied, strong, and brave fellows."

As in the case of all the texts, there is no significant mention, let along discussion, of black Americans in the materials dealing with establishment of the federal government after the writing of the Constitution. In the third unit of the text, "Expanding America," there is a passage describing slavery in the Southwest. A revolt not commonly mentioned in the texts concludes the passage.

The slaves who worked these plantations did not always accept their lot peacefully. In 1811, a group of more than 400 slaves gathered along the Mississippi River north of New Orleans and began to march toward the city. They burned plantations on the way and urged other slaves to join them. Whites fled in terror. The militia and federal troops met the rebels outside New Orleans and defeated them. The rebel leaders were executed and their heads were mounted on poles along the Mississippi as a warning to other slaves.

It is in this unit that reform movements of the 1830s and 1840s are discussed. The section on abolitionism is very disappointing because it does not make any reference to the black abolitionists. The following section on the Southern reaction includes a paragraph on the Nat Turner revolt in 1831. On the whole, this important topic is not treated in a way that is consistent with the text's over-all very high level of achievement in this area of history.

In the following unit, "Civil War and Civil Rights," the first black American reference is a reproduction of a painting by the Afro-American artist Horace Pippin, "whose mother saw (John) Brown on his way to his death." The material on the black American's participation in the war itself is an outstanding presentation. It not only details the accomplishments of black soldiers and notes the participation of black women who joined with white women to nurse the sick and wounded and to form relief societies, but also discusses the many problems faced by the black soldier. Rarely do the texts mention the shocking fact that ". . . for more than a year (they) were paid less than the white soldier. Finally, some Negro regiments refused to accept any pay until their pay was equalized." The passages are accompanied by three photographs, one of the Second U.S. Colored Artillery, another of a black infantry regiment, and the third of Harriet Tubman, who is mentioned in the material as a spy for the Union army, as well as noting her more commonly known work for the Underground Railroad. A section on the "New Governments in the South" is a superb presentation which includes several paragraphs describing black officeholders. Unlike many texts which leave students with the impression that the blacks who held office were not equal to the whites in background:

Many of the Negro officeholders had been free before the war and had managed to acquire an education and some money. Francis L. Cardozo, for example, treasurer of South Carolina, was a freeborn Negro who had been educated in Glasgow and London. He had been a Presbyterian minister in Connecticut. After the war Cardozo went South and settled in Charleston. Former slaves looked to men like Cardozo for leadership.

The section goes on to detail the activities of black political leaders in a way that conveys the impression that they were essentially no different in strengths and weaknesses than white politicians.

"Industrial America," the next unit, deals very early with the black migration to the cities, both Southern and Northern. It gives a long and detailed account of the discrimination which black Americans suffered both in finding housing and finding jobs.

As the number of Negroes in the North increased, white hostility erupted into violence. Crowds of whites in big cities like New York and Philadelphia attacked Negroes in the streets. Race riots occurred in southern and northern cities. One hundred Negroes were lynched in the United States in 1900, some for "insulting white persons." For the American black man, his own country was surely not a land of promise.

Following this discussion is a long treatment of the conflict between Booker T. Washington and W. E. B. DuBois, the former under the topic of "Self-help for the Negro" and the latter treated as "A More Radical Approach."

Later in the unit, in a section on "Progressivism," the injustices to blacks in both the North and South, as described by Ray Stannard Baker in his book, "Following the Color Line," published in 1904, is treated as part of that period's history.

The next unit, "Expanding Abroad," includes material on World War I. Here there is a large photograph of "The famous 369th Regiment, called Hell Fighters by the Germans," which was the first Negro group "to enter combat." Several paragraphs describing the participation of black troops in this war appear here.

The problems faced by blacks in the North and South during the post-World-War-I years are detailed in considerable length in the following unit. The Chicago race riot of 1919 is discussed for several paragraphs. The text notes that lynchings were common in the South. Teenagers, and soldiers who were still wearing the uniforms in which they had fought in France, were among the victims.

The last section of this unit, "Struggle for Civil Rights," contains some 15 pages of narrative describing the modern civil-rights history beginning with one of the first attacks against segregation made in 1941 when A. Philip Randolph threatened a march on Washington which influenced Franklin D. Roosevelt to issue an executive order banning discrimination in defense plants. Under headings such as "Segregation and Education," "The White Response," "Direct Action in Montgomery," "From Boycotts to Sit-ins," "The Voter Registration Campaign," "Confrontation in Birmingham," "The civil Rights Act of 1964," "Martin Luther King Jr.," "The Black Muslims and Black Power," "Increasing Racial Turmoil," and "The Death of Martin Luther King," all accompanied by dozens of startling photographs, this material reflects what we have called the "turnaround" in American-history texts in terms of their treatment of black-American history.

The concluding unit, which deals with World War II among its subjects, contains a section, "Negroes and the Armed Forces," which, again, is one of the best such treatments of black Americans in America's 20th-century wars that we have found among the texts. Commenting on the indignities endured by black soldiers in the armed forces, the text manages to bring in the name (and accompanying photograph) of Dr. Charles R. Drew.

The blood banks that the Red Cross organized for wounded servicemen kept Negro and white blood separate. This was a bitter irony, because the man who helped develop blood banks was Dr. Charles R. Drew, a Negro.

Like so many of the texts of the '70s, this is a new kind of text. It is not attempting to do what the traditional texts have been doing in the past. That is, it does not seek to cover American history from A to Z, thereby including every person and event in that history from Columbus to Nixon. Therefore, if the quantitative level of black-American history in this text does not (and it doesn't) always match that of

other texts or even that of our own criteria of what a text should include, it is no reason not to consider using the text for a course where black-American history is a vital criterion for adoption. Even from a quantitative standpoint, it merits the most serious consideration. It must be noted, however, apart from its treatment of black American topics, that the format as well as the content of this text—and this is true of a number of the texts we have surveyed in this edition of our study—must be reviewed in terms of particular teacher and student background and goals. But, again, insofar as the treatment of black Americans is concerned, this text does a very satisfactory job.

America, Its People and Values

junior-high-school text
Leonard C. Wood
Ralph H. Gabriel
[and Edward L. Biller]
Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc.
New York City
1971

Dr. Leonard C. Wood, the principal author of this text, brings an unusually impressive background with him for preparing a school text. While he has the usual scholarly credentials of being a professor of history (Eastern Illinois University, Charleston) and a number of years teaching history in public schools, he also has had extensive experience in developing and editing American-history textbooks and other instructional materials in social studies as senior social-studies editor with a major publisher and as editor-writer with another one. However, in terms of "black coverage," it appears that another author, Edward L. Biller, social-studies teacher and supervisor in the Baltimore city public schools, acted as "educational consultant." This information, incidentally, is not in this text, but in another new text by the same publisher, "Building the United States" (reviewed elsewhere in this study), of which Biller is one of the three authors. The point of all this simply is to note that a special educational consultant, black, has been used for the presently reviewed text, but not acknowledged in it, for whatever reason.

The second "author" of this text is Dr. Ralph H. Gabriel, one of America's most distinguished historians. We put "author" in quotations because we have doubts that Gabriel really played more than a consultant's role in the over-all text. His name and reputation lend great distinction to any school text. One of his earlier texts, "Story of the American Nation," has been one of the most popular junior-high-school texts in the country for many years. We have reviewed this text in earlier editions of this study, and it had, in its earlier editions, proved to be one of of the least distinguished treatments of blacks among the texts. However, editions since 1964 have been considerably improved. Interestingly enough, Biller's name was added as author since the 1964 edition.

We have given more than the usual amount of attention to authors in this instance because it is not irrelevant to note how publishers "operate" in such matters. And, certainly, it is clear that authors can and do make a difference in the tone and point of view of any historical writing.

The brochure promoting this all-new text, from a publisher which still publishes and promotes its "best-selling" "Story of the American Nation," provides a blurb stating that "cultural and racial pluralism, the pervasive theme of American history itself, is the dominant theme of the textbook." It goes on to point out that while this text "examines carefully and systematically the contributions and roles of all racial and ethnic groups in American history (it) gives special attention to the history of black Americans. This extensive coverage of Negro history is unequalled in scope and in scholarship by any other standard junior-high-school American text." While it is our essential aim to consider how well this text measures up to that claim, we must observe that it is interesting and significant that what we have here is a publisher offering two texts with two different degrees of emphasis on the ethnic-racial theme when in the "old days" publishers offered the same text in different editions for different geographic markets, North and South! The pitch is different, but the tune is the same.

In a "Prepublication Information" mimeographed two-page bulletin, marked "Privately circulated for testing purposes," the publisher discusses "Coverage of Minority Groups" in "America, Its People and Values." This document included most of the index entries which have to do with black Americans and black history. This again emphasizes the heavy commitment to producing an acceptable black-American history sufficiently balanced so that it can be promoted and sold as a "general" American-history textbook. The question is, does it succeed? Our own response is that it does indeed. Beyond that, there is another aspect of the approach which gives the text special distinction. Besides focusing on *people*, as its title suggests, it also deals with the other concept in that title, *values*. Texts have long been criticized for sterile presentation of facts with a pretense of "objectivity." Thus, the cruelties of black slavery or the Nazi holocaust were discussed simply as another fact in history without any judgment. Certainly there are basic democratic values which our society cherishes, and there has never been any sound reason why students should not be taught them. Granted that the teaching of values may encounter pitfalls. This is no reason to avoid teaching values, but only to avoid the pitfalls.

Since this is not an inquiry-approach text, but a more traditional "factual" presentation (although distinguished by the emphasis of value judgments), it is appropriate to evaluate this text on the extent to which it includes black personalities and events. Very early in the text, in the first unit dealing with discovery and exploration of the New World, there is a detailed discussion of "An amazing journey,"—in this instance the exploration and discovery of the Southwest led by a black explorer, Estevanico. In the same unit, there is a good discussion of the "Indians and Negroes" in Spanish America.

The unit on the American Revolution includes a full-page color feature on Phillis Wheatley, a black poetess of the period. On the Revolution itself, there is a section of a half-dozen paragraphs on "Black Americans in the Revolution," which discusses black participation in considerable detail, describing Salem Poor's heroic role at the battle of Bunker Hill. The section concludes,

But Americans who hoped that the Revolutionary War would bring an end to slavery were disappointed. This did not happen. In fact, independence brought few gains for black Americans....

It then goes on to detail these observations. Of course, Crispus Attucks gets his due recognition in this section and, as a matter of fact, is discussed earlier in the text in a passage on the Boston Massacre. Two references to Attucks is probably the limit!

The chapter dealing with "Colonial Life: The Old and the New," offers several passages on slavery which go beyond merely describing the institution but also make some compelling value judgments:

A slave was a slave until he died. His children were born slaves. A slave could not look forward to becoming a free man, as the indentured servant could. Slavery was evil because it denied that men who were slaves also were human beings. Slavery often meant that men were treated no better than beasts of burden.

Slavery also had many other tragic results. Since only Negroes were made slaves, the colonists began to believe that Negroes were not as good as white people. In this way, racial prejudice developed as slavery grew . . .

After describing the life and work of the slave, the authors conclude that in any case, black slaves "played a key part in the growth of the Southern colonies."

While most texts now include Jackson's tribute to the blacks in his victory at New Orleans in the War of 1812, this text uses the events of the war to incorporate a passage mentioning Richard Allen and Absalom Jones who are rarely brought to students' attention in histories.

In Philadelphia, two important Negro leaders helped prepare the defense of their city against the British. Richard Allen and Absalom Jones were founders of the African Methodist Episcopal Church. They had organized this church in 1787, because of the prejudice that they found in the churches of white Americans.

Allen and Jones used their influence to organize and drill more than 2,000 Negroes to prepare for possible British attack. Although the British never came to Philadelphia, these two men had made a significant contribution to the war effort.

The authors thereby not only integrate the blacks in this war, but also give information on the reasons for founding a black church, which, after all, has played a tremendously influential role in the history of black Americans up through the civil-rights revolution of the post-World-War-II years.

The treatment of the abolitionist movement is a splendid example of the superior job this textbook has done in its treatment of black-American history. In a chapter, "Trying to Improve American Life," discussing the reform movements of the period 1800-1850, where most texts deal with abolitionism toward the end, this text starts with it. The first section, "What was the life of a slave like in America?" is a lengthy, full treatment of the institution. It is a judicious treatment as well. Thus, one passage, "The Burden of Slavery," begins with the statement: "In the slave system, there were kind masters and cruel masters. The difficulty of the work depended on the type of plantation, the season of the year, and the kind of man who was the overseer." The passage goes on to give specific details and examples. The next few pages describe the various major slave rebellions in far greater length than

most of the texts surveyed. It is the next section, "How Did Some Americans Try to End Slavery?" in which the abolitionist movement is discussed for several pages. Incorporated into this section is a reproduction of an American landscape painting (one of the features of the text is a series of "Art in America" notes throughout) which was painted by a black painter, Robert S. Duncanson. This last fact is mentioned only at the end of a long accompanying caption discussing the emergence of American artists, so that the introduction of a black painter does not appear forced. Also included in this section is a half-page feature on the Amistad affair.

One specific example of the directness of the text is this quote dealing with black abolitionists. After discussing Garrison for several paragraphs, the authors write:

> Men like Garrison based their opposition to slavery on their hatred of slavery. But they were white Americans, who knew nothing or little about slavery from their own experience. Therefore, Southerners often said that Garrison did not know what he was talking about. But accounts of the experiences of former slaves were a different matter. They were harder to argue against. And a group of free black men soon became active leaders of the abolition movement.
>
> Many Negro slaves who escaped to freedom spent the rest of their lives trying to win freedom for others. These former slaves had experienced slavery. They knew what they were talking about. Their appearance at anti-slavery meetings was often more effective than Garrison's.

This is followed by several paragraphs on Frederick Douglass who, of course, best exemplified this kind of black leader. He and his newspaper, *The North Star*, were ". . . proof that black men had great intelligence and knew how to use that intelligence to help fight slavery." It is this kind of use of factual material, combined with value judgments which reflect the kind of positive attitudes as well as providing information, with which a history text can achieve the goals both of history and justice.

In the next section, dealing with other goals of American reformers, the topic of women's rights is discussed. This is accompanied by a full-page feature on Lucretia Mott, a leading woman reformer who headed Philadelphia's Anti-Slavery Society. Thus does the text manage to combine two topics and reinforce the material on abolitionism.

Almost at the beginning of the unit dealing with "Civil War and Reconstruction," there appears a full-page feature on Frederick Douglass, thereby giving this important black figure greater importance. Not surprisingly, this text gives one of the longest discussions of the role of black soldiers and sailors in the war. Among other things, the too-often-overlooked fact that 65,000 black soldiers died in the war is noted, as well as the fact that 29,000 black sailors fought in the Union navy, and four of them won the Medal of Honor for their courage.

In the chapter on Reconstruction, Thaddeus Stevens is portrayed sympathetically and not as the "fanatical nigger-loving politician" frequently characterized in the old texts. He "understood that abolishing slavery was only a beginning for the freedmen." It is pointed out that "unlike most of the countrymen of the time—Northerners as well as Southerners—Stevens believed in full racial equality. He insisted that freedmen must have the right to vote, because he believed that justice required this." At the same time, however, the text balances the interpretation of the Reconstruction era by noting that there were "good political reasons for giving the right to vote to the freedmen. Thaddeus Stevens was a Republican. Naturally, he wanted

to keep his political party in power . . . thus (he) had two closely related aims. One was to give freedmen the vote. The second aim was to keep the Republicans in control of Congress."

The discussion of the Reconstruction governments is summed up in a section, "The Good and the Bad," which gives a balanced presentation of the strengths and weaknesses of these governments.There is a full-page illustrated feature here on Robert Smalls who, "after the war, became one of South Carolina's most important political leaders. Elected to Congress in 1874, he served four terms in the House of Representatives."

A lengthy discussion of black cowboys is included in the following chapter, "Building New States on the Plains." Several paragraphs are given to this topic. The most famous of these cowboys, Nat Love, "Deadwood Dick," and Bill Pickett, are described in short sketches.

The new immigrants who have entered the country since 1865 are discussed in terms of their contributions. This is followed by sections on the contributions made by American Indians and by black Americans. In more than three pages, the authors survey a large number of blacks in all walks of life. A feature page is devoted to Dr. Charles Richard Drew, who set up the first blood bank in this country. This is a good choice, rather than the artist or sports hero as is usually the case.

There is no specific material on the blacks in World Wars I and II. While this is an unfortunate omission, the broad sweep of the text manages to overcome it by what it does do in the area of black-American history topics. However, there is very little material—perhaps too little—on black Americans from World War I through World War II.

The last 10 pages of the next-to-last chapter, "New Challenges to America," is devoted to the civil-rights movement. On the whole, this is as lengthy and as detailed a presentation as one is likely to find in any of the texts. But what is somewhat disappointing is the lack of attention given to the militant groups and individuals, such as the Black Panthers and Eldridge Cleaver. We noted this in another of the same publisher's high-school texts (for "slow learners"). Biller, the educational consultant for the present text, was one of the authors of that text, so that clearly the consistency is due to that factor as much as to the publisher's judgment to play down the "extremists" in the black movement.

This is a splendid text to choose for classrooms where there is a desire to focus on people and values in American history. Black people and black values are given a judicious proportion of attention, giving both black and white students a well-rounded view of the American story. We find this text fully acceptable and wholly admirable.

The Shaping of America

senior-high-school text

Richard O. Curry
Richard G. Sproat
Kenyon C. Cramer
Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.
New York City
1972

Richard O. Curry is professor of United States history at the University of Connecticut and is responsible for "the style and historical interpretations" of parts one and two of the text, covering the exploration period through the Civil War and Reconstruction. Kenyon C. Cramer, chairman of the history department of Hawken School, prepared part three, on the rise of industrialization. John G. Sprout, chairman of the history department of Lake Forest College, wrote parts four and five of the text, which carries the narrative from the 1920s through the present decade.

It must be stated at the outset that this text is unquestionably in a class by itself in terms of its treatment of the black American in the American experience. What is especially admirable and remarkable about this achievement is that the text succeeds as a general American-history text and is in no way only a black-American-history textbook.

The reader can get a sense of what this text accomplishes at the very beginning, when, in the first section of the first chapter, "Settlers Gain a Foothold in Virginia, "there is a substantial response to one of the four questions presented at the start of the chapter (and of each chapter, "to keep in mind while reading the chapter"), which asks, "Why were blacks denied the status of indentured servants and considered slaves?" After a detailed narrative on the Middle Passage, the text explains the emergence of slavery not as simply a labor system, but as "a system of social control based on racial prejudice whereby elaborate legal and institutional arrangements were created to assure absolute domination of one race by another." No text has come on as strongly as this in characterizing slavery.

A later section, dealing with the development of a distinctly American society, includes a passage on blacks in the colonies which gives a strong negative treatment of the conditions of slave life. While conceding that while "It is true that many masters were personally kind to their slaves, no amount of good treatment could compensate for depriving men of what they needed most: a sense of dignity and worth."

Throughout the text, there are numerous examples of a quantitative and qualitative presentation of the blacks in American history which also includes strong and justified value judgments. A text that does this kind of job can deal with the Boston Massacre without mentioning that among the five men who were killed was a black man. The importance of the Massacre was that it "symbolized the failure of British

policy." There is enough significant material in the text throughout that can justify not making Crispus Attucks' death an important historical event.

The treatment of slavery in a chapter dealing with the South in the middle of the 19th century is, again, detailed and uninhibited.

A section on the abolitionist movement includes a long passage describing the black-abolitionist movement." Also included in its treatment is the candid and often-overlooked fact that antislavery sentiment in the North did not mean that the North in general thought of blacks as equals. "For example, the women's antislavery society of New York would not admit black members. ' The presentation of the abolitionist crusades here is surely one of the longest and best among all the texts included in this study.

The role of black soldiers in the Civil War is the subject of another long and detailed discussion in this text. But it has always been in the treatment of Reconstruction that the measure of a text's success as an "integrated" American-history textbook has largely been determined. The introductory questions presented at the beginning of the section on Congressional Reconstruction or so-called "Black Reconstruction" point out how well this text measures up.

1. What political role did blacks play in the Republican governments of the South?
2. In what ways is the stereotyped view of radical rule in the South accurate, and in what ways is it inaccurate?
3. What evidence is there that political corruption was a national phenomenon during the Reconstruction period?
4. What advancements were achieved during the period of Republican control in the South?

The text proceeds to respond to these questions in great detail and in the process reflects the best historical scholarship in this area. The paragraphs on "Stereotypes of 'radical' rule" are unique and enlightening, even for this adult reader-historian. The author does succeed in giving us a balanced picture to a degree virtually unparalleled among the texts. Several further paragraphs deal with political corruption during the period, and then as many paragraphs deal with the achievements of Republican rule.

In a long section on higher education for blacks in a later chapter, "Social and Cultural Trends in the Gilded Age," the text concludes that

> American public schools in this era made impressive gains in terms of greater educational opportunities for more students. However, the over-all educational scene revealed severe inequalities. These unresolved, and often unrecognized, defects would have to be dealt with painfully by later generations.

Describing the emergence and development of the Niagara Movement, which led to the establishment of the NAACP, "radical for its time," the text offers perhaps the most comprehensive discussion of this important topic. It says that the movement "was significant as the first organized attempt by blacks to protest the racial policies of white America."

Race relations during the post-World-War-I years are related in the discussions

describing the major race riots of that period in East St. Louis, Washington, D. C., and Chicago.

The chapter on the "Social and Cultural Trends of the Roaring Twenties" includes a long discussion of "Rising Black Awareness" which describes the profound changes in the social attitudes and lifestyle of urban blacks during this period. Garvey's "Back-to-Africa" movement is described in considerable detail. The text concludes that ". . . the Garvey phenomenon was the first mass movement among black people to protest racial injustice in America (but) as another black leader at the time concluded, it was a waste of money and effort, but a significant expression of 'soul.' "

In a section on the "literature of alienation" of this period, there appears a discussion of the writers of the "Harlem Renaissance." As the text puts it, "For black writers, alienation was a permanent fact of life." Claude McKay's famous poem, "Harlem Shadows," is quoted in full. It is noted that 20 years later, at the height of World War II, when Britain was embattled and expecting a German invasion, Prime Minister Winston Churchill read the poem to the House of Commons as a call for defiance and courage in the face of a superior foe. The text points out that Sen. Henry Cabot Lodge "had it inserted in the Congressional Record as evidence of black radicalism." McKay commented that the poem applied universally to all who were desperate and cornered, as he felt was true of blacks in 1919 ". . . Whether or not Churchill was aware of the author's race or defiant nationalism, he apparently agreed with McKay's interpretation of this poem."

The last chapter of the text, "The Turbulent Sixties," treats the "Ethnic Minorities Revolt," largely in terms of the civil-rights movement of black Americans. One can get a telling sense of the material from the questions raised at the outset of the presentation.

1. What factors sparked the civil-rights movement of the Fifties and Sixties?
2. How much actual progress had been made by black Americans to achieve equality by the end of the 1960s? What accounted for this change?
3. Do you think the nonviolence of Martin Luther King or the Black Power of Malcolm X, Stokely Carmichael, and H. Rap Brown was more effective in achieving racial equality and dignity for blacks?
4. What other American minority groups felt themselves discriminated against by the white American majority? Do you think their problems and goals were similar to those of black Americans?

If the measure of a well-integrated American-history textbook is not to be essentially a quantitative count, but, rather, a qualitative analysis of the part and participation that blacks have played in the American experience (with, to be sure, a substantial number of references to people and events), then this text represents what is best among American-history texts of the 1970s. In terms of a general text, apart from its viability as material for black-American history, it is clearly outstanding in all the dimensions now required by the schools. All the current methodologies and teaching strategies of the new social studies are reflected in the design of the text. The usual audiovisual kit, primary sourcebook, and elaborate teacher's guide are all part of it. It deserves serious consideration by textbook-selection committees and teachers.

A New History of the United States: An Inquiry Approach

senior-high-school text

Irving Bartlett
Edwin Fenton
David Fowler
Seymour Mandelbaum
Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.
New York City
1969

The Holt Social Studies Curriculum, with Prof. Edwin Fenton of Carnegie-Mellon University as general editor, has been the "pioneer" publisher in offering the inquiry textbook to the social-studies classrooms. Previous to the appearance of this series in the mid-1960s, the approach was pretty much limited to social-studies projects and their experimental editions, which were used by pilot school districts. The first of the American-history volumes was "Discovering American History," a junior-high text. Being first, the publisher paid the price of offering a text with a large number of weaknesses both in methodology and content. We are advised, however, that the forthcoming revised edition, due within the next two years, will see a major strengthening of the text. In the meantime, as we have indicated in our survey here, a number of publishers have produced stronger and better inquiry volumes, especially for the junior-high-school student. "Discovering American History" was and remains at the present time extremely weak in the area of black-American history material. Indeed, it probably has the smallest amount of material among all available texts.

But the present text under review, a senior-high-school work, published several years after the junior-high text, is considerably stronger in the area of our interest of black-American history. Nevertheless, its coverage is not anywhere as complete as some of the current crop of new texts, which also use the inquiry approach. Again, a new edition in the next year or two is expected to make up this gap.

Except for Seymour Mandelbaum, who is at the nearby University of Pennsylvania, the editor-authors of this text are all members of the faculty of Carnegie-Mellon University, Pittsburgh.

The introduction to the text points out that "This is a new kind of textbook . . . . Instead of 20 or 30 chapters written by one or two authors, the text has 122 readings." Each of these "readings contain at least one piece of source material, taken from a newspaper, magazine, book, government document or other publication." Consistent with the inquiry approach, the student "will not merely memorize facts and generalizations; you will identify problems, develop hypotheses, or tentative an-

swers to questions, and draw your own conclusions from factual evidence." In short, the theme of the introduction is that this is a text designed to make students think more than to know. Using such approach, will students come to *think* about the role of the black American, even if he is not going to *know* very much about him from this text?

The first reference to the black American appears on page 79 in one of the "historical essays" which follows each chapter. This reference is in one sentence—or part of a sentence—"Thus, except for Indians and Negro slaves, the British colonies deserved the reputation of a land of opportunity." A second reference is on page 109, in a footnote to the historical essay on the American Revolution: "The first colonist to fall was a Negro, Crispus Attucks." After that, more than 100 pages of material pass before we come to a third reference, again a single, incidental statement in the historical essay on Jacksonian Democracy, that "Negroes, Indians, and women did not enjoy equality."

Finally, in the next chapter, 10, "The Spirit of Reform," there is a document (documents are, after all, the meat of this text) by a black American, excerpts from two speeches by Frederick Douglass dealing in general terms with his philosophy of reform and not so much abolitionism in particular. The introductory note includes a paragraph giving some basic facts about Douglass' life and career. Later in the chapter, a section is devoted to the abolitionist movement. The selections here "show some of the ways in which the abolitionists went about trying to destroy slavery." There are four documents in the section for the topic. One, and the briefest, is a piece from Frederick Douglass' "Autobiography." The other three are longer pieces from the works of white abolitionists. Indeed, the introductory note to the section makes no reference to the black abolitionists. On the whole, the treatment of abolitionism here leaves much to be desired. However, it should be noted that the passages in the concluding historical essay, apparently written by the editors of the text, include an excellent section on "The Movement to Abolish Slavery." Again missing are references to black abolitionists, other than a few sentences on the Underground Railroad and the work of Harriet Tubman (whose good work has had recognition from time immemorial in the texts, together with Booker T. Washington, Louis Armstrong, and Joe Louis). But the essential theme of the discussion that "The abolitionists represented the American conscience," is a compelling one. Compared to the past, when so many texts treated abolitionists as fanatical firebrands, this passage is consoling indeed:

> They helped to force the great issue which Abraham Lincoln defined by saying that the American nation could not remain indefinitely half slave and half free. Men who denounce contemporary reformers for their uncompromising stands might well reflect upon the influence of this remarkable band of impassioned people who believed that it was preferable to divide a nation rather than condone injustice.

The next chapter of the text "examines the ways in which slavery shaped the South in the second quarter of the 19th century. What was it like to be an American slave? How did Southerners defend slavery? What was the impact of slavery on the economy of the South? How did slavery influence Southern society and attitudes? These are the major issues with which we will be concerned in Chapter 11."

It is unfortunate that something like a third of the text has been studied before the student comes to the black American except for, literally, a couple of incidental

sentences. That slavery should be the first topic encountered by the student emphasizes the problem of the black, not the history. True, slavery in a sense is the history of the black up through the Civil War; nevertheless, it is possible and desirable—as a number of texts in our current survey reveal—to include a number of documents which round off the picture of the black American during the first half of America's history.

The introductory essay to this chapter on the slavery issue states that different sources suggest different answers to what plantation slavery was like:

> Former slaveholders, writing after the Civil War, stressed the harmony of plantation life and the kindness and generosity of the masters. Northern historians, writing in the post-Civil-War period, emphasized the cruelty of the slaveholders and the suffering of the slave. Former slaves, who testified after the Civil War about their experiences as slaves, often gave inconsistent reports.

The sources presented do not include any former slave's account, and except for the northern architect, Frederick Law Olmstead, the other accounts are defenses of the institution. However, the historical essay at the conclusion of the chapter offers a judicious, well-balanced discussion which includes some splendid passages on the economic and psychological effects of slavery. A last section of this essay, "Southern Attitudes Affect Civil Liberties," makes some much-needed observations on the violation of basic civil liberties which took place in the South because of its position on slavery. Although true to a lesser degree, the denial of these liberties in the North to abolitionists is not reported by the text.

The next two chapters, "National Growth and Manifest Destiny," and "The Coming of the Civil War, 1850-1869," contain no reference, let alone documents, dealing with the black American. The historical essay in the chapter dealing with the Civil War and Reconstruction, "From War to Reconstruction, 1861-1877," does offer a good narrative, revisionist view of black Reconstruction. It notes first that at the turn of the 20th century most American historians described a very negative picture of Reconstruction, arguing that ". . . it had allowed 'scalawags,' 'carpetbaggers,' and unprepared Negroes to come into power and plunder the South for personal advantage." Conceding that profit and corruption played a role in Radical Reconstruction, the editors write that "Many Negro legislators in the South shared in the loot, but it does not appear that they were any more guilty than their white colleagues." The essay goes on to point out that more recently historians have stressed the positive side of Reconstruction. This is detailed. Finally, the essay concludes with a compelling and comprehensive presentation of the blacks who participated in the Reconstruction governments. They never dominated any of these governments, but the "Negroes who did hold office seem on the whole to have been as qualified as white officeholders, and the governments which they helped to shape made lasting accomplishments, particularly in helping to bring progressive welfare legislation and free public education to the South." These points are made now in all the current texts in our survey, so that the Reconstruction period has at last come to be taught in the light of the current historical scholarship.

The documents in the chapter itself include testimony of freedmen as well as the views of Southerners and Northern observers.

After the next two chapters, which deal with industrial growth and farming, neither

of which makes any reference to black Americans—a common omission among most of the texts, incidentally—the chapter on "Negroes and Whites in the Southern States" focuses on the 20 years of debate preceding the decision in the South to suppress Negro rights and to legislate rigid inequality.

What attitudes did white Southerners display toward Negroes? Why were Negroes suppressed? How did Negroes react? How did the rest of the nation react? These are the major issues raised in this chapter.

The documents in the chapter thus trace the emergence of Jim Crow. In a section, "A Choice of Paths," the different black responses as represented by Booker T. Washington and W. E. B. DuBois, are given detailed consideration. The historical essay offers a comprehensive narrative account of the events of the period. The whole chapter is the inquiry approach at its best, since it also includes the topic of our interest as well as documents and connecting narrative which result in thinking and knowing about some of the issues of black-American history.

In the following chapter on "The New Immigrants," this text fails to do what most of the new texts do: Include a piece on the black Americans as forced immigrants and show some of the unique problems they faced compared to other "immigrants."

Eleven chapters and almost 300 pages pass, until the next-to-the-last chapter in the text, before the black American is mentioned again. This chapter is certainly a superb treatment of the black-protest movement in the 20th century, both through the documents and the historical essay which relates the experience of blacks to those of other minority groups in recent American history.

We have already indicated in our own introduction to this survey that texts premised on the inquiry-conceptual approach to the study of history cannot be held to the same criteria in the treatment of black American personalities and events as are held for the orthodox or traditional secondary-account narrative texts. Yet there is a degree of inclusion for which even such inquiry texts should be held accountable. It is our judgment that this text does not quite measure up to at least a minimum degree of inclusion. The distance between chapters and pages where no black-American history appears is much too great. This is a text for "advanced" readers if not advanced students in our high schools, whether or not so designated. Such students, black and white, should be given more material on the black American than is offered in this first edition of the pioneer inquiry American history text. It is a measure of how much poorer the junior-high-school text in this series, "Discovering American History," is when we note that this senior-high edition is head and shoulders ahead of that, at least. But in terms of what is now presently available in the school market, school districts seeking black American history coverage, together with the best and latest methodology, can do better than this text at this time.

OTHER STUDIES BY IRVING SLOAN

The Negro in Modern American History Textbooks, published September 1966, with additions December 1967 and revised October, 1968.

Selected texts reviewed:

Land of the Free
Caughey, Franklin, and May (jhs)

The Story of Our Country
Ver Steeg (jhs)

The Making of Modern America
Canfield and Wilder (shs)

The Growth of America: California Report
Liebman and Young (jhs)

Story of the American Nation
Casner and Gabriel (jhs)

This Is America's Story
Wilder, Ludlum, and Brown (jhs)

The Adventure of the American People
Graff and Krout (shs)

Our American Republic
Link and Muzzey (shs)

The Rise of the American Nation
Todd and Curti (shs)

United States History
Gavian, Hamm, and Freidel (shs)

History of Our Republic
Baldwin and Waring (shs)

The American Adventure
Wyman and Ridge (shs)

The Treatment of Black Americans in Current Encyclopedias:

A survey of adequacy and accuracy in nine contemporary encyclopedias.

Encyclopedias reviewed:

Britannica Junior Encyclopaedia
Collier's Encyclopedia
Compton's Encyclopedia
Encyclopedia Americana
Encyclopaedia Britannica
Encyclopedia International
Merit Students Encyclopedia
The New Book of Knowledge
The World Book Encyclopedia

Wrapup of AFT Literature
Some other publications from the AFT:

The Negro and American Education.
A special issue of Changing Education, containing articles on Afro-American history in the school curriculum and the relationship of black people to the U.S. school system.
(Publication No. 2-B,
single copy 35¢, $12.50 for 100)

The Negro in U.S. History.
A reprint of an American Teacher article by Dr. John Hope Franklin, discussing the inadequacies of current teaching and texts as they treat the subject.
(Publication No. 203,
single copies free, $1 for 25)

Real Negroes/Honest Settings.
An annotated bibliography of children's books which portray Afro-Americans in an honest light. By Dharathula Millender, school librarian, Gary, Ind.
(Publication No. V-3,
single copy $1, $10 for 25)

Integrated School Books.
A descriptive bibliography of 399 preschool and elementary-school texts and story books published by the NAACP.
(Publication No. 234-A,
single copy 10¢)

Why Did Washington Burn?
A lesson plan prepared by the Washington Teachers' Union, AFT Local 6, for classroom use following the civil disorders there in April, 1968.
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